

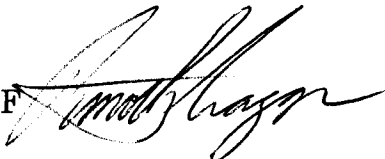
Memorandum

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Be energy efficient!*

To: ALL DISTRICT DIRECTORS
CHIEF, ENGINEERING SERVICES
ALL HOLDERS OF THE HIGHWAY DESIGN MANUAL
ALL DISTRICT HYDRAULIC ENGINEERS

Date: June 30, 2003

File: 800

From:  KARLA SUTLIFF
Chief
Division of Design

Subject: Design Information Bulletin 83 – Caltrans Supplement to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual

This transmittal memorandum provides notice that the above-referenced Design Information Bulletin (DIB) is now available on the Division of Design website. Any District staff who are involved in the inspection, evaluation or design of culverts or storm drain systems are advised to read and become familiar with the guidance contained in DIB 83.

PURPOSE

Due to the aging of the state highway system and appurtenant structures, many culverts and storm drains are reaching the end of their projected design service life. The need to accurately assess condition and develop plans for the rehabilitation and replacement of these structures is increasing, yet no formal comprehensive Departmental guidance has existed. DIB 83 serves as a source of information on the application of a variety of rehabilitative and replacement strategies, provided within a Caltrans context, that highlights trenchless techniques which minimize traffic disruption.

ALL DISTRICT DIRECTORS
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June 30, 2003
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BACKGROUND

Prior information available to staff on the subject of culvert replacement and rehabilitation has been provided in the form of DIB 76 "Culvert Rehabilitation Using Plastic Pipe Liners", dated January 5, 1995 and the two-volume Federal Highway Administration document entitled "Culvert Repair Practices Manual", dated May, 1995. The purpose of DIB 83 is to provide updated information on the evaluation, rehabilitation and replacement of culverts and storm drains. DIB 83 supersedes DIB 76 in its entirety, while it acts as a supplement to the information contained in the FHWA document.

As a supplement to the FHWA document, DIB 83 provides both updated information as well as Department specific procedural guidance on culvert material properties, performance and assessment. Direct links to the FHWA document are provided where warranted to eliminate the need for redundancy.

IMPLEMENTATION

The guidance contained in DIB 83 should be viewed as permissive standards, similar to guidance contained in Chapter 800 of the HDM, and should be implemented into projects effective August 1, 2003 in accordance with the provisions of HDM Index 82.5 "Effective Date for Implementing Revisions to Design Standards".


DIB 83 contains information on culvert materials and performance that will supersede information currently contained in Chapter 850 of the Highway Design Manual (HDM). Future updates to the HDM will be brought into conformance with the information in DIB 83.

DESIGN INFORMATION BULLETIN NUMBER 83

California Department of Transportation
Division of Design
Office of State Highway Drainage Design

CALTRANS SUPPLEMENT TO FHWA CULVERT REPAIR PRACTICES MANUAL

APPROVED BY


for **KARLA SUTLIFF**
DIVISION CHIEF
DIVISION OF DESIGN

June 30, 2003

**DESIGN INFORMATION BULLETIN No. 83
CALTRANS SUPPLEMENT TO FHWA CULVERT REPAIR
PRACTICES MANUAL**



June 30th, 2003

This document establishes uniform procedures to carry out the highway design functions of the California Department of Transportation. It is neither intended as, nor does it establish, a legal standard for these functions. The procedures established herein are for the information and guidance of the officers and employees of the Department.

This document is not a textbook or a substitute for engineering knowledge, experience or judgment. Many of the instructions given herein are subject to amendment as conditions and experience may warrant. Special situations may call for variation from the procedures described, subject to the approval of the Division of Design, or such other approval as may be specifically called for.

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1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 Objectives

Numerous documents and publications have already been written on the issue of culvert repair. The primary purpose of this Design Information Bulletin (D.I.B.) is to supplement the 1995 Federal Highway Administration Publication ‘Culvert Repair Practices Manual-Volumes 1 and 2’ (refer to on-line FHWA Hydraulics publications: <http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/bridge/hydpub.htm>), highlight areas of general concern, and reference other appropriate documentation to provide information, guidelines and alternatives for the cost-effective repair, rehabilitation, strengthening or retrofit upgrade of culverts and storm drains as described in Indices 806.2 and 838.1 of the Highway Design Manual (HDM). In addition, information contained in this D.I.B. supersedes D.I.B. No. 76 “Culvert Rehabilitation using Plastic Pipe Liners” dated January 1, 1995.

This D.I.B. is intended to be of assistance to design, maintenance, hydraulic and structural engineers who are responsible for decisions regarding maintenance, repair, rehabilitation, retrofit upgrading, and replacing highway culverts.

Many new products and techniques have been developed that often make complete replacement with open cut unnecessary. When used appropriately, these new products and techniques can benefit the Department in terms of increased mobility, cost, and safety to both the public and contractors. This D.I.B. is intended to build a collection of procedures that are cost-effective for their location and that will meet the needs of their particular area.

1.1.2 Organization

This D.I.B. is organized into twelve sections:

- Index 1.1 provides an introduction, purpose, target audience, and a general overview of problem.
- Index 2.1 reviews the most common materials used in culvert conduits and associated Highway Design Manual (HDM) references for material selection and service life. It provides general discussions on the behavior of rigid and flexible pipe and references the appropriate Caltrans standards for excavation, backfill and installation. Service life for culvert rehabilitation is also discussed in conjunction with various geotechnical factors, which include: pH, resistivity, chloride and sulfate concentration of the surrounding soil and water, and abrasion potential.
- Index 3.1 discusses problem identification and assessment through field inspection.
- Index 4.1 outlines culvert end treatment and other appurtenant structure repairs and retrofit improvements for headwalls, endwalls, wingwalls and outfall works.

- Index 5.1 outlines various types of problems that can be encountered in culvert barrels and presents guidelines and information on procedures for the associated repairs.
- Index 6.1 provides information on general culvert rehabilitation techniques. This section discusses Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy, grouting voids and provides a comprehensive outline of the various rehabilitation families and techniques.
- Index 7.1 discusses the following influencing factors that should be considered: hydrology, hydraulics, safety, environmental, host pipe dimensions and irregularities, and headquarters assistance/approval for large diameter plastic liners and pipe replacement using Trenchless Excavation Construction (TEC) methods.
- Index 8.1 provides a summary table and references for comparison of the various alternative rehabilitation techniques and guidance on the overall process.
- Index 9.1 discusses replacement; the decision process used to determine whether to repair or replace. Open cut and a comprehensive listing of the various trenchless replacement systems are provided, along with other considerations for TEC.
- Index 10.1 discusses Caltrans New Product Approval Process and construction evaluated experimental feature program and appropriate headquarters contacts.
- Index 11.1 Identifies some other considerations that should be taken into account when analyzing alternatives to repair and/or replace culverts.
- Index 12.1 – Appendixes provides supplemental information on; butt fusion procedures, Caltrans New Product Approval Process, culvert inspection, corrosion and crack repair in concrete pipe. Also provided are sources of repair information and industry contacts.

1.1.3 Overview of Problem

Culverts are an integral part of the highway system, and like other parts of the system they are subject to deterioration. Currently, culverts functionally classified as bridges (see Index 62.2 (2) of the HDM) are inspected at least every two years. Also, some districts have participated in a pilot culvert inspection program. At the present time, camera equipped vehicles for culvert inspection are available in the following Districts: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8 and 11. See Index 3.1.1. However, culvert repair work is frequently approached strictly as a maintenance problem without consideration of the underlying structural or hydraulic conditions from which the deterioration originates. Surveys performed recently have shown relatively high percentages of culverts in need of at least some form of repair.

Because of the large number of aging culverts in use today, the Department is faced with a major expense in repairing, rehabilitating, and replacing culverts as they reach the end of their design service life.

To date, there has been limited written guidance available within the Department on the topic of how to rehabilitate culverts without disrupting traffic.

2.1 Culvert Structures

2.1.1 Material

The most common materials used in culvert conduits are reinforced concrete, corrugated steel, and corrugated high-density polyethylene. Other materials that may be found in culvert conduits are corrugated aluminum, non-reinforced concrete, ribbed polyvinyl chloride (PVC), welded steel, timber, and masonry. Refer to HDM Chapter 850, Topics 851 through 854 for guidance on Material Selection, Design Service Life and Kinds of Pipe Culverts. Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-18 to 2-30 for a description of culvert materials and coatings for culvert materials. Refer to Table 853.1A in the HDM for allowable alternative pipe materials for various types of installation.

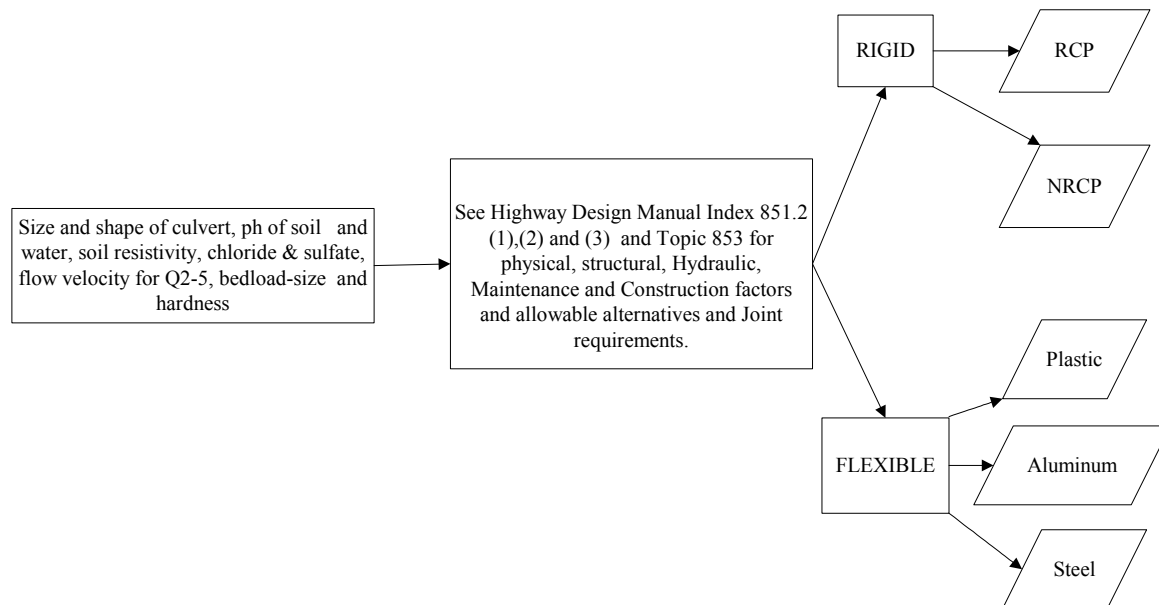
These various pipe materials will have differing types of response to applied load. Based on this response, the pipe material can be categorized as either rigid or flexible, as described in Indices 2.1.1.1 and 2.1.1.2. This distinction in behavior is important not only in understanding how a pipe will perform under various soil and live load conditions, but will also affect failure mechanisms and repair considerations.

The following flow chart offers a general guide to the thought process and factors involved in selecting allowable alternative materials in accordance with HDM Topic 853:

DESIGN FACTORS

DESIGN GUIDANCE

DESIGN SELECTION



2.1.1.1 Rigid

2.1.1.1.1 General

If the culvert material is rigid (usually reinforced concrete), the load is carried primarily by the structure walls. Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-7 to 2-8, 2-11 and 2-31 to 2-35 for a description of pipe loading, rigid culvert behavior and installation. As described on page 2-33 and in Figures 2.20 and 2.21 on pages 2-34 and 2-35, it is very important to have uniform bedding to distribute the load reaction around the lower periphery of the pipe. Adequate support is critical in rigid pipe installations, or shear stress may become a problem. Excavation, backfill and culvert beddings shall conform to the details shown on the Standard Plans numbered A62D, RSP A62DA, A62E and to the provisions in Section 19-3, "Structure Excavation and Backfill" of the Standard Specifications. In addition, slurry cement backfill or controlled low strength material (CLSM) may be used in lieu of structure backfill. Per Index 854.9 of the HDM, Class 4 concrete backfill may be used for culverts where it is necessary to have less than 0.6 m of cover below the top of a flexible pavement. The backfill shall conform to the provisions in Section 65-1.035, "Concrete Backfill".

2.1.1.1.2 Concrete Pipe

Per Topic 852 of the HDM, for reinforced concrete pipe (RCP), box (RCB) and arch (RCA) culverts maintenance free service life, with respect to corrosion and abrasion and/or durability, is the number of years from installation until the deterioration reaches the point of exposed reinforcement at any location on the culvert.

Refer to Standard Plan D88 for required minimum cover for construction loads on reinforced concrete pipes and arches.

For non-reinforced concrete pipe culverts, per HDM Topic 852.1 maintenance free service life, with respect to corrosion and abrasion and/or durability, is the number of years from installation until the deterioration reaches the point of perforation or major cracking with soil loss at any point of the culvert.

2.1.1.1.3 Other Rigid Materials

2.1.1.1.3.1 Glass Fiber Reinforced Polymer Mortar (RPMP) or Fiber Reinforced Polymer Concrete Pipe (FRPC)

Reinforced Polymer Mortar pipes (RPMP) are made by mixing a high strength thermosetting polyester resin, aggregate/sand and chopped glass fiber roving to form a type of concrete. The resin within the mix provides for bonding the aggregate much like Portland Cement does in traditional concrete pipes. Cement and water are not used and this product may be used in corrosive applications. It is also lightweight compared to RCP and uses push-together joints instead of a bell and spigot. RPMP is available in diameters from 450 mm to 2590 mm and section lengths of 1.5 m, 3 m and 6 m. See

FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 2-27 and refer to ASTM D3517.

Currently, Caltrans does not contemplate developing new Standard Specifications for this product; however, this product is approved for jacking and microtunneling for permit installations. See Indices 9.1.2.2.1 and 9.1.2.2.2. There is a very limited use for RPMP in typical direct burial culvert applications due to its relatively high cost. However, in addition to jacking and microtunneling applications, there is potential usage for RPMP as a slipliner if site conditions dictate a special design.

Since RPMP is specially designed to fit specific site loading and hydraulic characteristics, the Underground Structures Unit within Caltrans Division of Engineering Services (DES) should be contacted for a project-by-project review. See Index 7.1.6.2.

Maintenance free service life, with respect to corrosion and abrasion and/or durability, is the number of years from installation until the deterioration reaches the point of perforation or major cracking with soil loss at any point of the culvert.

2.1.1.1.3.2 Polymer Concrete Pipe - also known as Polyester Resin Concrete (PRC), this type of pipe is currently not included in Caltrans. The materials used in polymer concrete include resin, sand, gravel, and quartz powder mineral filler. Similar to RPMP pipes, Polymer concrete pipes are lightweight compared to RCP and use push-together joints with gaskets. PRC pipes may be viable for use in some specialized applications including corrosive environments (pH ranges of 1 to 10) and pipe jacking or microtunneling (high compressive strengths of up to 90,000 kPa), see Indices 9.1.2.2.1 and 9.1.2.2.2.

2.1.1.1.3.3 Fiber Reinforced Concrete Pipe - the fiber cement industry has grown out of the asbestos cement industry. Fiber reinforced concrete pipe consists of cellulose fiber, silica sand, cement, and water. Fiber reinforced concrete pipe is potentially a durable, lightweight option to non-reinforced concrete pipes. It is not approved or included in Caltrans Standards for use as a direct burial alternative pipe. However, in large diameter man entry pipes the material may be viable for use as a segmental liner. See Index 6.1.3.7.1.

2.1.1.1.3.4 Ductile Iron is a strong, durable semi-rigid pipe. Even though ductile iron has been used for culvert and storm drains, it is generally not a cost effective option and there are no Caltrans Standards. Occasionally this material may be a consideration for use as a slipliner.

2.1.1.1.3.5 Fiberglass – Fiber Reinforced Plastic Fiber reinforced plastic (FRP) is not included in the Caltrans Allowable Alternative Materials Table 853.1A of the HDM and is typically not economically competitive for use as a direct burial alternative culvert material. However, in large diameter man entry pipes the material may be viable for use as a segmental liner (see index 6.1.3.7.2) or in some specialized applications including: pipe jacking or microtunneling. See Indices 9.1.2.2.1 and 9.1.2.2.2. FRP pipe is available in diameters from 300 mm to 3700 mm. For further discussion on FRP, see FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 2-26 and refer to ASTM D3517.

2.1.1.2 Flexible

If the culvert material is flexible (usually metal or plastic), a soil-pipe interaction must be present in order that the pipe is able to transfer the bulk of the load to the surrounding soil. In other words, the soil, not the pipe, carries and supports most of the live and dead load. Suitable backfill material and adequate compaction are of critical importance – especially below the springline. A well-compacted soil envelope of adequate width is needed to develop the lateral pressures required to maintain the shape of the culvert. The width of the soil envelope is a function of the strength of the surrounding in-situ soil and the size of the pipe. This is achieved by meeting the requirements that are outlined in Section 19-3 of the Standard Specifications for Structure Excavation and Backfill and conforming to the details shown on Standard Plan A62F. Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-9 to 2-10 for a description of flexible culvert behavior. Also, refer to Standard Plan D88 for required minimum cover for construction loads on plastic pipes and metal culverts. See Index 2.1.1.1.1 for discussion of structure backfill alternatives. See HDM Topic 854.9 and Table 854.9 for minimum thickness of cover required for design purposes.

2.1.1.2.1 Metal Pipe

For all metal pipes and arches that are listed in Table 853.1A in the HDM, maintenance free service life, with respect to corrosion and abrasion and/or durability, is the number of years from installation until the deterioration reaches the point of perforation at any location on the culvert. This is primarily a function of corrosivity and abrasiveness of the environment into which the pipe is placed. See Figure 854.3B - Minimum Thickness of Metal Pipe for 50 Year Maintenance Free Service Life and Figure 854.3C – Chart for Estimating Years to Perforation of Steel Culverts (California Test 643) in the HDM. Note that the service life estimates referenced in Figures 854.3B and 854.3C, are for various corrosive conditions only, and both these charts require, as a minimum, site-specific pH and minimum resistivity data from District Materials in order to determine the pipe's corrosion resistant service life. For a detailed discussion of maintenance free service life and durability of metal pipe, refer to Topic 852.1 and 854.3 (2) *Durability*, in the HDM. For a detailed discussion of corrosion, see Index 5.1.2.4 of this document. For a detailed discussion of metal pipe abrasion see Indices 2.1.4.1 and 5.1.2.2.

The following is a brief summary of the material design step considerations for metal pipe:

1. Metal thickness adequate to support fill height (see HDM Tables 854.3B-G and Tables 854.4 A-E)
2. Use Figures 854.3B and C to determine the minimum thickness and limitation on the use of steel, aluminum or aluminized steel (corrugated or spiral rib) pipe.
3. Consider Aluminized Steel or Aluminum if applicable
4. Consider Protective Coating using Table 854.3A (knowing channel bedload material and stream velocity) if necessary

5. Increase Metal thickness to offset corrosion and abrasion effects
6. Check material design meets design service life per Topic 852.1(1)

2.1.1.2.2 Plastic Pipe

“Plastic” pipe is as unspecified a term as is “metal” pipe. The two most commonly used plastics are polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and high-density polyethylene (HDPE). The limited data that is available regarding plastic pipe for culvert applications suggests that plastic materials may provide equivalent service life in a potentially broader range of environmental conditions than either metal or concrete. Both PVC and HDPE are unaffected by the chemical and corrosive elements typically found in soils and water. In addition, both types have exhibited excellent abrasive resistance. Plastic pipe materials are also subject to some limiting conditions that often are not a consideration in selecting other culvert types which include: extended exposure to sunlight (specifically ultra-violet radiation) and a higher potential for damage from improper handling and installation. See Index 5.1.4. Plastic is also flammable; PVC will melt/burn under high temperatures but is inherently difficult to ignite and will self-extinguish once the heat source is removed. HDPE will continue to burn as long as adequate oxygen supply is present. Based on testing performed by Florida DOT, this rate of burning was fairly slow, and often “burned itself out” if there wasn’t sufficient airflow through the pipe. End treatments using metal or concrete (flared end sections or headwalls) will limit the possibility of fire damage.

Per Topic 852 of the HDM, maintenance free service life, with respect to corrosion and abrasion and/or durability, is the number of years from installation until the deterioration reaches the point of perforation at any location on the culvert or at the onset of wall buckling. and/or for further discussion on durability and strength requirements. See Section 64 of the Standard Specifications for pipe material, joints, earthwork and concrete backfill requirements. See Index 2.1.1.2 for a general discussion on flexible pipe behavior and excavation and backfill considerations. See Index 6.1.3.1.1 for sliplining using plastic pipe liners. For further discussion on plastic pipe, see Index 5.1.4 and FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-25 and 2-26.

2.1.1.3 Culvert Coatings

2.1.1.3.1 Coatings for Concrete and other Culverts

As discussed in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-28 to 2-30, a variety of coating types may be used either singularly or in combination to protect culverts from corrosion and or abrasion and meet design service life requirements.



Caltrans abrasion test panel installation showing various culvert materials and coatings

Polyvinyl Chloride (PVC) Lined RCP is not listed in the FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual. It is primarily used for protection from corrosion, but also provides some sacrificial abrasion resistance to RCP in lieu of additional cover and/or admixtures. PVC Lined RCP uses Polyvinyl Chloride sheet liners that cover three hundred sixty degrees (360°) of the interior surface of the pipe. It was originally designed specifically to protect new concrete sewer pipe against hydrogen sulfide gas/sulfuric acid attack.



Example Polyvinyl Chloride (PVC) Lined RCP using T-Lock™ Polyvinyl Chloride (PVC) sheet liners manufactured by Ameron Protective Linings Division

Designers need to be aware that both the cement in concrete as well as the reinforcing steel in RCP are susceptible to chemical attack and will occasionally need to be protected. For pH ranging between 7.0 and 3.0 and for sulfate concentrations between 1500 and 15,000 ppm, concrete mix designs conforming to the recommendations given in

Table 854.1A of the HDM should be followed. Higher sulfate concentrations or lower pH values may preclude the use of concrete or would require the designer to develop and specify the application of a complete physical barrier. Reinforcing steel can be expected to respond to corrosive environments similarly to the steel in CSP. Referring to Figure 854.3B it is apparent that combinations of pH and minimum resistivity will lead to corrosion of reinforcing steel if water can penetrate through the concrete. In a similar fashion, waters with high chloride concentrations (e.g., marine environments) can also lead to corrosion of reinforcing steel. However, properly designed and installed RCP (i.e., minimal cracking due to handling/construction loading) will typically provide adequate concrete coverage over the reinforcing steel to provide protection to the steel, except under extreme conditions. Contact the District Materials unit or Corrosion Technology in Engineering Services for design recommendations when in extremely corrosive conditions. Non-Reinforced concrete pipe is not affected by chlorides or stray currents and may be used in lieu of RCP (with additional concrete cover and/or protective coatings) for sizes 900 mm in diameter and smaller. See Table A in Index 2.1.2.2, HDM Table 854.1A, and HDM Index 854.1(5).

2.1.1.3.2 Coatings for Metal Culverts

Coatings for metal culverts are designed to provide either a corrosion barrier (generally covering the entire periphery of the pipe) or a sacrificial layer of abrasive resistant material (generally concentrated in the invert of the pipe). While increasing the pipe's metal thickness to offset corrosive or abrasive effects can also be specified, coatings are typically more cost effective and should be given first consideration.

HDM Table 854.3A lists all of the plant-applied approved coatings for steel culverts and constitutes a guide for estimating the added service life that can be achieved based upon abrasion resistance characteristics only. Field application of a concrete invert lining or even special abrasion resistant tiles or linings can also be specified to increase service life due to abrasive conditions.

Under most conditions, plain galvanizing of steel pipe is all that need be specified. However, the presence of corrosive or abrasive elements may require the use of various coating products, used either individually or in combination. The Department of Fish and Game (DFG) has approved the use of both polymeric sheet coating and polymerized asphalt; however, DFG will restrict the use of bituminous coatings as discussed in the HDM. It should be noted that polymeric sheet coating was originally developed as a corrosive barrier although it can also provide additional protection from abrasion. Polymerized asphalt should be considered for use when abrasion is present.

Where significant soil side corrosion and abrasion are present, a composite steel spiral rib pipe, which is externally pre-coated with a polymeric sheet, and internally polyethylene lined, may also provide additional service life. Index 854.3 (2) (a) of the HDM discusses these approved protective coatings and their application to protect against corrosion, abrasion, or both. Section 66-1.03 of the Standard Specifications outlines the requirements for the approved coatings.

Determining when a coating is needed, and what type to call for will depend on the results of the materials/geotechnical investigation and an assessment of the corrosive and abrasive potential of the site by the designer. Minimum resistivity; pH; sulfate concentration; type, size and hardness of bedload materials can affect both durability and selection of appropriate coating. In many cases, multiple coating types may be effective and as such the contractor should be given the option of selecting the most cost effective of those that meet minimum service life requirements.

While generally perceived as an alternative pipe product as opposed to a coating, the application of a thin layer of aluminum over steel (i.e., aluminizing) can often be a very effective mechanism to enhance the durability of steel pipe. Per the material design selection considerations listed in Index 2.1.1.2.1, if the channel bedload is non-abrasive, the pH of the soil, backfill, and water is within the range of 5.5 to 8.5, inclusive, and the minimum resistivity is 1500 ohm-centimeters or greater, the use of Aluminized Steel (type 2) should be considered prior to considering alternative coatings or increasing the thickness of the steel. See all sub sections of Index 854.4 (2) of the HDM. Aluminized steel should be considered to be equivalent to galvanized steel when abrasion is a factor. See Index 854.3 (2) (b) of the HDM.

Where soil side corrosion is the only concern, polymeric coated steel pipe service life should be evaluated using Figure 854.3C (to determine steel thickness necessary to achieve 10-year minimum life of base steel), with the assumption that the (exterior) polymeric coating will provide additional protection to attain the 50-year service life requirement.

For locations where water side corrosion and/or abrasion is of concern, recently developed coating products, like polymerized asphalt and polymeric sheet, can provide superior abrasive resistant qualities (as much as 10 or more times that of bituminous coatings of similar thickness).

2.1.2 Service Life for Culvert Rehabilitation; Geotechnical Factors

Generally, for culvert rehabilitation, the design service life basic concepts are the same as those defined in Index 852.1 of the HDM. Plastic pipe liners should be considered the same as plastic pipe with no additional service life added for annular space grouting. The estimated design service life for rehabilitation projects should be the same as indicated in Index 852.1 (1) of the HDM.

Regardless of the method or material selected to repair, rehabilitate or replace the culvert, the following influences must be assessed during any estimation of service life:

2.1.2.1 Hydrogen-Ion Concentration (pH), Soil Resistivity, Chloride and Sulfate Concentration of the surrounding Soil and Water: Both concrete and metal pipes can be subject to corrosion attack. In reinforced concrete culverts, a high sulfate concentration will cause the cement to deteriorate whereas the reinforcing steel can be

corroded if there is a low pH or high chloride concentration. See Indices 2.1.1.3.1 and 2.1.1.3.2, Table A in Index 2.1.2.2, Table 854.1A and Figure 854.3B of the HDM.

2.1.2.2 Material Characteristics of the Culvert: a careful determination of geotechnical factors at the Culvert site should be made to assure proper material selection for any repair or restoration. Table A suggests limitations and potentials for culvert materials.

Table A

Material	Acceptable pH range	Resistivity Level(ohm-cm)	Abrasion Potential	Chloride/ Sulfate resistance
Steel	See HDM Table 854.3 C	See HDM Table 854.3 C	Low ³	See footnote ⁵
Aluminum	5.5-8.5 ¹	>1500 ¹	Varies ¹	See footnote ⁵
Plastic	>4 ⁶	NA	Generally Low ⁶	NA
Concrete	>3 ²	NA	Low to High ⁴	Sulfates ²
Polymer Mortar	1-13	NA	Generally Low	NA

1. Aluminum corrodes differently than steel and is not susceptible to corrosion attack within the acceptable pH range of 5.5-8.5 when considering abrasion potential. See HDM Index 854.4(2)(a) thru (f), abrasion potential dependent upon, velocity, size, shape and hardness of bedload, i.e., velocities > 1.5 m/s only allowable for a small, rounded bedload.
2. See HDM Table 854.1A for recommended cement type and minimum cement factor when pH range is 3 to 5.5.
3. Assuming zinc galvanizing is present and base steel not exposed to corrosion attack.
4. Abrasion potential for concrete is dependent upon the quality, strength, and hardness of the aggregate and density of the concrete as well as the velocity of the water flow coupled with abrasive sediment content. There is a correlation between decreasing water/cement ratio, increasing compressive strength and increasing abrasion resistance.
5. Chlorides and sulfates combined with moist conditions may create a hostile corrosive environment. Minimum resistivity indicates the relative quantity of soluble chlorides and sulfates present in the soil or water. See HDM Figure 854.3B.
6. PVC may experience greater abrasive wear in an acidic environment.

2.1.2.3 Abrasion: Abrasion is the wearing away of pipe material by water carrying sands, gravels and rocks (bed load) and is dependent upon size, shape, hardness and volume of bed load in conjunction with volume, velocity, duration and frequency of stream flow in the culvert. For example, at independent sites with a similar velocity range, bedloads consisting of small and round particles will have a lower abrasion potential than those with large and angular particles such as shattered or crushed rocks. Given different sites with similar flow velocities and particle size, studies have shown the angularity of the material may have a significant impact to the abrasion potential of the site. All types of pipe material are subject to abrasion and can experience structural failure around the pipe invert if not adequately protected. Four abrasion levels have been developed by FHWA to assist the designer in quantifying the abrasion potential of a site. The abrasion levels in Table 854.3 A of the HDM for abrasive resistant protective coatings needed for metal pipe, use the same four abrasion levels that have been

developed by FHWA. The abrasion levels and recommended pipe/invert materials that are presented in the summary table at the end of this section are generally the same as the four abrasion levels that have been developed by FHWA, however, some modifications have been made based on research data. The descriptions of abrasion levels are intended to serve as general guidance only, and not all of the criteria listed for a particular abrasion level need to be present to justify defining a site at that level. Included with each abrasion level description are guidelines for providing an abrasive resistant pipe, coating or invert lining material. The designer is encouraged to use those guidelines in conjunction with the abrasion history of a site to achieve the required service life (see Index 2.1.2) for a pipe, coating or invert lining material.

Sampling of the streambed materials is generally not necessary, but visual examination and documentation of the size and shape of the materials in the streambed and the average stream slopes will give the designer guidance on the expected level of abrasion. Where an existing culvert is in place, the condition of the invert should also be used as guidance.

The stream velocity should be based on typical intermittent flows and not a 10 or 50-year event. This is because most of the total abrasion will occur during these more frequent smaller events. For velocity determination of typical intermittent flow, the velocities in the table at the end of this section (and Table 854.3A of the HDM) should be compared to those generated by the 2-5 year return frequency flood.

Corrugated steel pipes are typically the most susceptible to the combined actions of abrasion in conjunction with corrosion – this has led to a wide range of protective coatings being offered. However, steel plate is a viable alternative for use as an invert lining. See Index 5.1.2.2 for abrasion and invert durability repairs of corrugated metal culverts.

Aluminum may display inferior abrasion characteristics than steel in non-corrosive environments, however, Aluminized Steel (Type 2) can be considered equivalent to galvanized steel for abrasion resistance. Furthermore, in some cases, Aluminum may display less abrasive wear than steel in a corrosive environment depending on the volume, velocity, size, shape, hardness and rock impact energy of the bed load.

Polymer Mortar, fiber reinforced plastic and other resin-based products such as Cured in Place Pipe (CIPP) offer good abrasion resistance and are not subject to corrosion effects. The same can be said for PVC and particularly HDPE; however, PVC may experience greater abrasive wear in an acidic environment ($\text{pH} < 4$).

Concrete pipes will counter abrasion through increased minimum thickness over the steel reinforcement, i.e., by adding additional sacrificial material. See Index 854.1 (2) (c) of the HDM. Abrasion potential for any concrete lining is dependent upon the quality, strength, and hardness of the aggregate and density of the concrete as well as the velocity of the water flow coupled with abrasive sediment content and acidity (see HDM Table 854.1A). There is a correlation between decreasing water/cement ratio, increasing

compressive strength and increasing abrasion resistance. For further discussion on concrete invert paving, see Index 5.1.2.2.1.



Various culvert material test panels shown above after 1 year of wear at site with moderate to severe abrasion (velocities generally exceed 3 m/s, see table next page). Note the significant wear to abrasive resistant protective coatings, which, would typically not be recommended under these conditions (see table next page). The bed load material composed of 90% quartz sand. Also note the wear on the leading edges (right) of the steel nuts.

As discussed on the previous page, there are multiple factors that should be considered when attempting to estimate the abrasion potential of a site and associated service life of a culvert and/or lining material (size, shape, hardness and volume of bed load, in conjunction with volume, velocity, duration and frequency of stream flow in the culvert).

The following table can be used as a “preliminary estimator” of abrasion potential for material selection to achieve the required service life (see Index 2.1.2), however, it uses only two of the factors that are outlined above; bed load size and flow velocity. As discussed above, the other factors that are not used in the table should also be carefully considered. For example, under similar hydraulic conditions, heavy volumes of hard, angular sand (see photo in Index 5.1.2.2) may be more abrasive than small volumes of relatively soft, large rocks. Furthermore, two sites with similar site characteristics, but different hydrologic characteristics, i.e., volume, duration and frequency of stream flow in the culvert), will probably also have different abrasion levels.

ABRASION LEVELS AND MATERIALS TABLE		
Abrasion Level	General Site Characteristics	Invert/Pipe Materials
Non Abrasive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Little or no bed load • Velocities less than 1 m/s with bed-load 	<p>All allowable pipe materials listed in HDM Table 853.1A.</p> <p>No abrasive resistant coatings needed for metal pipe.</p>
Low Abrasive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minor bed loads of sand, silts, and clays • Velocities less than 1.5 m/s 	<p>All allowable pipe materials listed in HDM Table 853.1A with the following considerations:</p> <p>Generally, no abrasive resistant protective coatings needed for steel pipe. Polymeric, polymerized asphalt or bituminous coating or an additional gauge thickness of metal pipe may be specified if existing pipes in the same vicinity have demonstrated susceptibility to abrasion particularly if a corrosive environment exists.</p>
Moderate Abrasive A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate bed loads of sands, gravels, and small cobbles with maximum stone sizes up to about 150 mm. • Velocities from 1.5 m/s to 3 m/s 	<p>All allowable pipe materials listed in HDM Table 853.1A with the following considerations:</p> <p>Steel pipe will typically need one of the abrasive resistant protective coatings listed in HDM Table 854.3 or additional gauge thickness.</p> <p>Aluminum pipe not recommended for sharp and angular bed loads, otherwise OK.</p> <p>Lining alternatives: PVC, Corrugated or Solid Wall HDPE, CIPP</p>

ABRASION LEVELS AND MATERIALS TABLE – Contd.

Abrasion Level	General Site Characteristics	Invert/Pipe Materials
<p>Moderate Abrasive B</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate bed loads of sands, gravels, and small cobbles with maximum stone sizes up to about 150 mm. For larger stone sizes within this velocity range, see ‘Severe Abrasive’ • Velocities from 3 m/s to 4.5 m/s 	<p>Aluminum pipe not recommended.</p> <p>Corrugated HDPE pipe or liners allowed.</p> <p>PVC pipe or liners allowed but not recommended for upper range of stone sizes in bed load if freeze thaw conditions are often encountered, otherwise OK for stone sizes up to 75 mm.</p> <p>Generally, for sharp and angular bed loads the abrasive resistant coatings listed in HDM Table 854.3A are not recommended for steel pipe except CSSRP. A concrete invert lining or additional gauge thickness is recommended.</p> <p>For bed load stone sizes > 75 mm, concrete cover over reinforcing steel should be increased for RCP and invert thickness increased for RCB. A harder aggregate than the bed load, decreased water cement ratio and increased concrete compressive strength may also be specified.</p> <p>Lining alternatives: PVC, Corrugated or Solid Wall HDPE, CIPP, RPMP</p>

ABRASION LEVELS AND MATERIALS TABLE – Contd.

Abrasion Level	General Site Characteristics	Invert/Pipe Materials
Severe Abrasive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavy bed loads of sands, gravel and rocks, with stone sizes 150 mm or larger • Velocities greater than 3 m/s <p style="text-align: center;">or</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavy bed loads of sands, gravel and small cobbles, with stone sizes up to about 150 mm • Velocities greater than 4.5 m/s * <p>*Very limited data on abrasion resistance for velocities > 6 m/s; contact District Hydraulics Branch.</p>	<p>Aluminum pipe not recommended. None of the abrasive resistant protective coatings listed in HDM Table 854.3A are recommended for protecting steel pipe except CSSRP.</p> <p>CSP with concrete invert lining with harder aggregate than the bed load, decreased water cement ratio and an increased concrete compressive strength specified. Additional gauge thickness should be considered. Concrete invert lining not recommended for bed load stone sizes > 75 mm. Alternative invert linings may include steel plate, rails or concreted RSP. For new/replacement construction, consider “bottomless” structures.</p> <p>PVC pipe or liners only allowed for sand and gravel bed loads (< 50 mm) for velocities < 6 m/s.</p> <p>Corrugated HDPE pipe or liners allowed for velocities < 6 m/s and angular stone sizes up to 150 mm.</p> <p>For bed load stone sizes < 75 mm, concrete cover over reinforcing steel should be increased for RCP and invert thickness increased for RCB. A harder aggregate than the bed load, decreased water cement ratio and increased concrete compressive strength recommended. RCP/RCB not recommended for bed load stone sizes > 75 mm and velocities greater than 4.5 m/s.</p> <p>Lining alternatives: HDPE SDR (Solid Wall), CIPP.</p>

3.1 Problem Identification and Assessment

3.1.1 Inspection

At the present time Caltrans does not have a statewide culvert inspection program. To date, other than a pilot culvert inspection program, no systematic evaluation of condition has been implemented for culverts, except for those culverts classified as bridges (see Index 62.2 (2) of the HDM) and inspected at least every two years. Until such a comprehensive program exists, District Hydraulic or Maintenance personnel or the Project Engineer will typically perform culvert inspection along with tasks associated with other design or maintenance activities (such as pavement rehabilitation projects or routine cleaning), or obtain information from culvert inspection staff in those few Districts that have begun independent culvert evaluations.

Over the years, culverts have traditionally received less attention than bridges. Since culverts are less visible it is easy to put them out of mind, particularly when they are performing adequately. Safety is the most important reason why culverts should be inspected.

There are several key activities that must always be performed during a culvert inspection to ensure that a culvert is functioning adequately. The inspection should evaluate structural integrity, hydraulic performance and roadside compatibility. It is important to determine the underlying cause of a problem so that it will not recur or become more serious.

The FHWA Culvert Inspection Manual (refer to on-line FHWA Hydraulics publications: <http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/bridge/hydpub.htm>) provides guidelines for the inspection and evaluation of existing culverts. Although it is a stand-alone supplement to the bridge inspector's training manual, the guidelines are generally applicable to culverts of all sizes and it is recommended as the primary inspection reference by Caltrans staff for all culvert inspection.

Refer to Appendix C for an example of Caltrans Condition tables that were developed for the pilot culvert inspection program. The rating system developed by Caltrans is in lieu of the FHWA rating system and is compatible with the Caltrans Culvert Inventory database.

A complete version of the Caltrans Condition tables that were developed for the pilot culvert inspection program along with a list of information used to program the field data collecting units can be accessed at: <http://www.dot.ca.gov/hq/oppd/culvert/>

Contact Headquarters Maintenance for more information on the pilot culvert inspection program.

The following general elements are recommended to consistently determine cause, type, and extent of culvert problems:

- a) Review available information: Roadway and culvert Design, ADT/Truck Traffic, Maintenance History, Design Q – Headwater/Velocity, pH of water and soil, Resistivity of soil, Water Table.
- b) Observe overall condition.



- c) Inspect approach roadway, pavement and embankment.



- d) Inspect upstream and downstream waterway for vegetation, slope, and type of water system, scour, high water marks, changes in drainage area and land-use.



- e) Inspect end treatment and appurtenant structures.



- f) Inspect culvert barrel (deformation, deflection and cracking), joints, connections and junctions.



For long pipes 600 mm or smaller in diameter, it will probably be necessary to perform an inspection of the barrel with a remote controlled video camera. At the present time, camera equipped vehicles for culvert inspection are available in the following Districts: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8 and 11.



District 3 Video inspection vehicle (above)



Remote controlled camera Vehicle

In the North Region, the inspection system's primary use is to support Capital Outlay projects when requested by the Project Engineer. The camera system is also used to respond to Maintenance requests for investigation, which may lead to Capital Projects. If available, this unit may be utilized during project construction for investigating the quality of joints, backfill operations, or other needs. In other Districts, the uses may vary.

For a detailed discussion on Problem Identification and assessment, refer to Chapter 3 FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, and Table 7.1 on page 7-5 for the kinds of information that should generally be reviewed for each type of culvert. See Figures 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 on pages 3-9, 3-10 and 3-12 for flow charts outlining the overall process for analysis of problems and solutions.

4.1 End Treatment and Other Appurtenant Structure Repairs and Retrofit Improvements

4.1.1 Headwalls, Endwalls and Wingwalls.

Selecting an appropriate end treatment for a specific type of culvert and location requires the application of sound engineering judgment. Design guidance for culvert entrances and exits is given in Topics 826 and 827 of the HDM. If bank erosion is evident, a review of the original design may be warranted, particularly if the original selection was the same standardized type for both the headwall on the upstream end and the endwall on the downstream end. Straight headwalls and endwalls should be limited to locations with low approach and exit velocity not requiring inlet or outlet protection against eddy action. However, at the outlet to some cross culverts in narrow riverine canyons where there is a free outfall, it may be necessary to consider using a straight endwall to prevent erosion.



Example of combined straight headwalls and concreted RSP upstream end treatment

4.1.2 Outfall Works

The outfall works should provide a transition for the 100-year flood or design event from the culvert outlet to a section in the natural channel where natural stage, width, and velocity will be restored. If an outfall structure is required for transition, it will not typically be a counterpart of that required at the entrance. Wingwalls, if intended for an outfall transition, should not flare at an angle (in degrees from the stream axis) greater than 46 divided by the outlet velocity in meters per second (m/s). For the 100-year flood or design event, warped endwalls can be designed economically to fit trapezoidal or U-shaped channels, as transitions for moderate to high velocity (3-5.5 m/s). For extreme velocity (exceeding 5.5 m/s) the transition can be shortened by use of an energy-dissipating structure. At large culverts where stream channel degradation is present, countermeasures may be needed to prevent embankment failures and loss of pipe support at the outlet where the high-energy waterfall can undermine the embankment toe quickly in heavy runoff. For example, see photograph on page 70, Index 7.1.4. HY-8, the FHWA culvert software program provides designs for energy dissipators and follows the FHWA Hydraulic Engineering Circular No.14 method for design.



Energy dissipator plunge pool and bank protection at large diameter culvert outlet



Energy dissipator with flared wingwalls and bank protection

Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 5, and Volume 2, Appendices B-16 through B-22.

For bank protection design, in lieu of the guidance shown in Chapter 870 of the HDM, refer to the California Bank and Shore Rock Slope Protection on-line publication available at: http://www.dot.ca.gov/hq/oppd/hydrology/ca_riprap.pdf

5.1 PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION AND ASSOCIATED REPAIR FOR CULVERT BARRELS

5.1.1 Concrete Culverts

5.1.1.1 Joint Repair

A discussion on joint requirements and performance is given in Topic 853.1 (2) and (3) of the HDM. Table 853.1C provides information to help the designer select the proper joint under most conditions. See Chapter 5- 8.1(a) and (b), FHWA Culvert Inspection Manual for a discussion on misalignment and joint defects. The joint repair strategy should be dependent on the specific type of problem associated with the defect present i.e., misalignment, exfiltration, infiltration, cracks, or joint separation. In addition, pipe diameter will be an important factor to be considered because human entry is usually limited to pipes 600 mm (24 inches) or larger.

5.1.1.1.1 Misalignment

See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume I, pages 3-32, 3-37 and 3-44. Misalignment may indicate the presence of serious problems in the supporting soil. If progressive settlement is present, joint repair should not be performed until a solution to stabilize the surrounding soil has been found. In some cases, reconstruction may be the only option. If so, where there is a need to withstand soil movements or resist disjoining forces, “positive” joints should be specified. Refer to Standard Specifications, Section 61 and Table 853.1B in the HDM.

If the misalignment is a result of leaking joints and undermining, a determination should be made whether the undermining is due to piping, water exfiltration or infiltration of backfill material and a combination of grouting the external voids and sealing the culvert joints may be warranted using chemical grouting or other joint repair methods that are described in index 5.1.1.1.3. In addition the joint should be specified “watertight” per Section 61 of the Standard Specifications. Further discussion on watertight joints is given in Topic 853.1 (3) of the HDM. Further discussion on piping is given in Topics 829.3 and 829.4 of the HDM.

5.1.1.1.2 Exfiltration

Exfiltration occurs when leaking joints allow water flowing through the pipe to leak into the supporting material. Minor leakage may not be a significant problem unless soils are quite erosive. Where exfiltration has resulted in piping, measures should be taken for sealing culvert joints and making them “watertight” in addition to grouting for filling voids in the soil behind the joint as discussed in the previous section. The same techniques used to stop infiltration will also stop exfiltration. For storm drain systems with pipes 600 mm or less in diameter, grouting as described in 5.1.1.1.3, or some of the lining methods described under Index 6.1.3, such as cured in place, can be used to stop exfiltration. For larger diameters, internal grouting, PVC repair sleeves, grouting sleeves, internal steel expansion ring gasket joint sealing systems as described in 5.1.1.1.3, or other lining methods described in Index 6.1.3 such as sliplining or lining with CIPP will stop exfiltration.

5.1.1.1.3 Infiltration

Infiltration is the opposite of exfiltration. Many culverts are empty except during peak flows.

When the water table is higher than the culvert invert, water may seep into the culvert between storms. Infiltration can occur during flood events by suction from pressure differentials in inlet control culverts.

Infiltration can cause settlement and misalignment problems if it carries fine-grained soil particles from the surrounding backfill. See Index 5.1.2.3, Soil Migration. In such cases, measures should be taken to seal the joints to make them watertight. Internal grouting or some of the lining methods described in Index 6.1.3 such as sliplining, or lining with CIPP will stop infiltration. In general, for culvert repair work, Portland cement based grout, with and without special admixtures, is usually adequate and much less expensive than the foaming and chemical grouts that are used to resist high external and internal fluid pressures. Internal grouting can be specifically designed to stop infiltration at deteriorated, continuously leaking or open joints. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 5-37, 6-11, 6-14, and Volume 2, Appendices B-30 and B-26 for procedures on grouting voids and sealing culvert joints. Also see Index 11.1.1.

5.1.1.1.3.1 Chemical Grouting

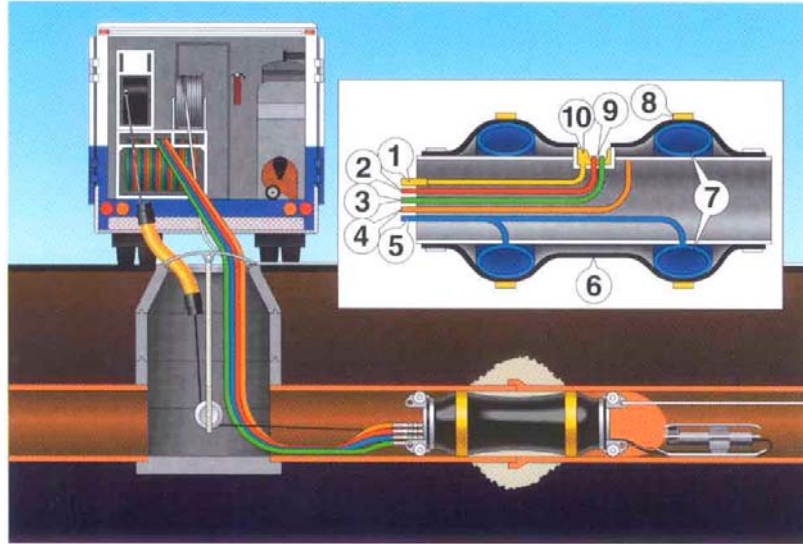


Internal Chemical Grouted Joint

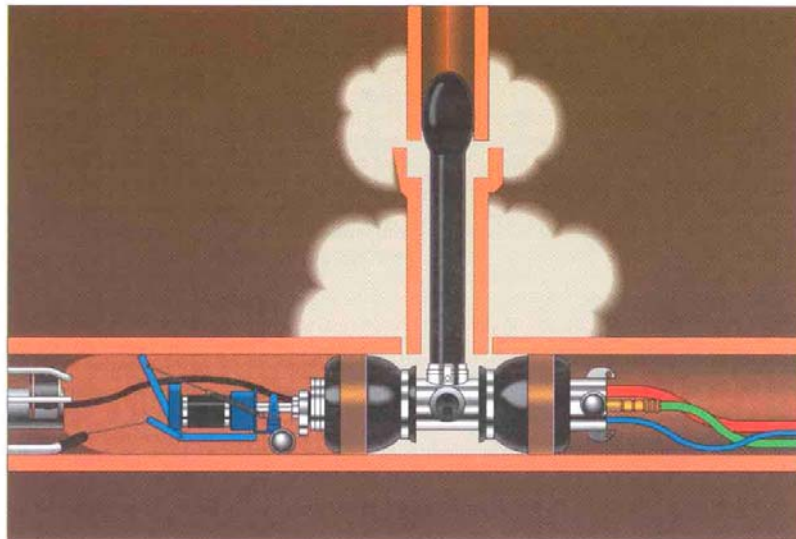
Chemical grouting is the most commonly used method for sealing leaking joints in structurally sound, sewer pipes that are under the groundwater table. It will not provide structural repair, and it is inappropriate for longitudinal or circumferential cracks, broken or crushed pipes. However, other methods such as using repair sleeves in combination with chemical grouting are appropriate for such repairs (see discussion towards end of this section). Attempting to seal joints that are not leaking or infiltrating during the sealing process has produced questionable results. Some types of chemical grouts have failed in arid regions where the grout has dried up during periods of low groundwater and in coastal regions where the ground is subject to tidal fluctuations. The long-term service

life for chemical grouting is unknown. One study concluded the life expectancy for chemically grouted joints was no more than 15 years, other references indicate a 20 year service life, and it is known to last even longer in other applications such as sealing tunnels and dams.

In non-human entry pipes, grouting is generally accomplished using a sealing packer and a closed circuit television (CCTV) camera. The sealing packer and CCTV camera are pulled through the pipe with cables. Concurrently, air or water testing equipment is used to test the joint and determine the effectiveness of the sealing.



Modern injection packers are very sophisticated, consisting of; (1) Pressure Sensing Line, (2) Chemical "A" Line, (3) Chemical "B" and Air Pressure Line, (4) Sleeve Air Line, (5) End Seal Air Line, (6) Sleeve, (7) End Seal Elements, (8) Sealing Pads, (9) Chemical Injection Ports, (10) Pressure Sensor Element.



New injection packers can seal lateral connections and the first few feet of service lines with chemical grout quickly and cost-effectively.

In pipes with large enough for human entry, pressure grouting is accomplished using manually placed inflatable pipe grout sealing rings or predrilled injection holes and a hand-held probe (see figure below):

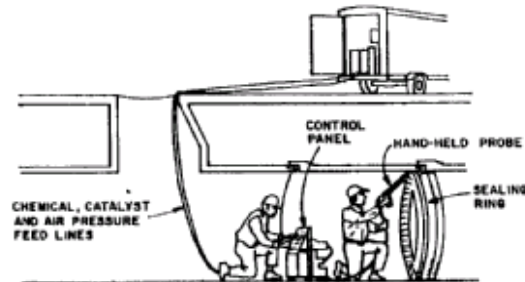


FIGURE 4.4. Typical arrangement for sealing large diameter pipe with grouting rings.



Illustration of Gel grout penetrating outside the pipe joint

The two basic groups of chemical grouting materials are gels and polyurethane foams. Polyurethane foam grout forms in place as a gasket and cures to a hard consistency but retains a rubber-like flexibility. The seal takes place in the joint and there is only minimum penetration outside the pipe. The service life of polyurethane foam is not moisture-dependent and therefore it can be considered for use in locations with wet-dry cycles. Gel grouts penetrate outside the pipe and infiltrate the soil surrounding the joint. The mixture cures to an impermeable condition around the joint area.

The service life of the non-urethane type gels discussed below is moisture-dependent, and therefore these types should not be considered for use in locations with wet-dry cycles. Urethane gel however, is different from the acrylamide, or acrylate gels in that water is the catalyst and they may be used in locations with wet-dry cycles to form either an elastomeric collar within the pipe joint as well as filling the voids in the soil outside the joint.

Generally the foam grouts are more expensive and difficult to install.

The most commonly used gel grouts are of the acrylamide, acrylic, acrylate and urethane base types. Acrylamide base gel is significantly more toxic in its pre-gelled form than the others but grout toxicities are of concern only during handling and placement or installation and EPA has now withdrawn a long standing proposal that sought to ban the use of acrylamide grouts. Due to its very low viscosity, acrylamide has long been the material of choice to repair underground structures in the sanitary sewer industry. The non-toxic urethane base gels are EPA approved for potable water pipelines because they use water as the catalyst rather than other chemicals. Because of soil and moisture variability, formulating the correct mixture is largely dependent on trial and error on a case-by-case basis, and is difficult to accurately specify in design.

As of this writing, there are no Caltrans specifications for internal chemical grouting. It is a good idea to contact a chemical grouting manufacturer and/or contractor for further information. See Appendix F.

5.1.1.1.3.2 Internal Joint Sealing Systems

If the pipe is round and large enough for human entry and the external hydraulic head pressure is low, it may be possible to use an internal steel expansion ring gasket joint sealing system in conjunction with pressure grouting to fill voids in the soil behind the joint. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, pages B-111 to B-116. If corrosion and abrasion protection is needed, it may be necessary to cover the steel expansion ring with shotcrete or cement mortar; however, rings are available in stainless steel for enhanced corrosion protection.



AMEX-10/WEKO-SEAL Internal Joint Sealing System examples above.

One method for sealing joints uses a jacked-in-place PVC repair sleeve combined with O-rings and annular space chemical or cementitious grouting. PVC repair sleeves range from 900 mm to 2550 mm in diameter.

Another option may be to use “grouting” sleeves ranging from 300 mm to 1350 mm in diameter. Grouting Sleeves have a stainless steel core surrounded by an absorbent gasket which is soaked in an expanding Polyurethane foam grout which bonds the repair sleeve

to the host pipe upon contact with water or air by filing the annular space between the structural stainless steel core and the host pipe. At each end is a closed cell Polyethylene End Sealer. Both of these repair sleeves are discussed in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, pages B-155 to B-159, however, the information above supercedes the size range and grouting information presented. For manufacture contact information, see Appendix F.

Examples of Internal Joint Sealing Systems include: the HYDRA-Tight Seal by Hydra-Stop, In-Weg Internal Seals by J. Fletcher Creamer and Son, Depend-O-Lok by Brico Industries, Link-Pipe PVC Sleeve and Link-Pipe Grouting Sleeve. All of these systems are non-structural. Also see Index 6.1.2 for grouting voids in the soil envelope.

5.1.1.1.4 Cracked and Separated Joints

Cracked joints are more than likely not watertight even if gaskets were used. However, if no other problems are evident, such as misalignment, and the cracks are not open or spalling, they may be considered a minor problem to only be noted in inspection. Severe joint cracks are similar in significance to separated joints. Separated joints are often found when severe misalignment is found. In fact either problem may cause or aggravate the other. Embankment slippage may also cause separations to occur. An attempt should be made to determine whether the separations are caused by improper installation, undermining, or uneven settlement of fill. If undermining is determined, an attempt should be made to determine whether the undermining is due to piping, water exfiltration, or infiltration of backfill material. It may also be necessary to test the density of the surrounding soil.

Refer to the previous discussion under *misalignment, exfiltration and infiltration* for joint repair considerations. See Indices 5.1.1.1.1, 5.1.1.1.2 and 5.1.1.1.3.

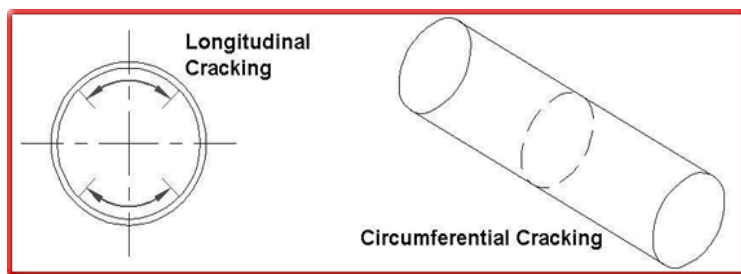
5.1.1.2 Cracks

For culverts that have been newly installed and backfilled, cracks should not exceed 0.25 mm in width in severely corrosive environments (pH of 5.6 or less, water containing vegetal or animal wastes, seawater, or other water with high concentration of chlorides). Conversely, for culverts installed in a non-corrosive environment (neutral pH close to 7, low concentrations of salt, vegetal or animal wastes), cracks of up to 2.5 mm in width of the installed pipe are acceptable if they are not excessive in number.

For all culverts cracks less than 0.25 mm in width are minor and only need to be noted. Cracks greater than 0.25 mm in width but less than 2.5 mm should be noted as possible candidates for routing a 7 mm wide minimum by 13 mm deep maximum V-Grind, then patching or sealing (see Appendix E). Cracks greater than 2.5 mm in width may indicate a serious condition and the Underground Structures Unit within the Division of Engineering Services should be contacted.

Longitudinal cracking:

Circumferential Cracking:



Typical locations for longitudinal cracking can be found in the crown and invert.

5.1.1.2.1 Longitudinal Cracks

See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 3-45.

Longitudinal cracking in excess of 2.5 mm in width may indicate overloading or poor bedding. If there is no soil loss associated with cracking in excess of 2.5 mm, rehabilitation may be considered.

See Figures 3.16 and 3.17 in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1 for the results of poor and good side support, the deformation of cracked pipes, the cause of the deformation and the visible effects. It should be noted that reinforced concrete pipe may fail (see Index 2.1.1.1.1) but will rarely “collapse”.

There is a choice of materials that may be used to repair cracks. The materials generally may be categorized as either flexible crack fillers or rigid materials that are more permanent that may create a structural repair. The latter group includes both Portland cement-based mortar (for cracks greater than 0.25 mm which must first be routed out) and structural adhesives that provide tensile and shear strength including epoxy systems that may be filled with a powder or unfilled. See Appendix E, and FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix B-25 for information on crack sealing with cement mortar or epoxy adhesive. Other options for repair may be to use one of the repair sleeves or chemical grouting using a hand held probe as described in Index 5.1.1.1.3.

See Caltrans Standard Specification Section 95: Epoxy, in conjunction with “Repair by Injection of Epoxy Adhesive” guidelines given in above-referenced Appendix B-25.

Pipe diameter will be an important factor to be considered when repairing individual cracks because human entry is usually limited to pipes 600 mm or larger. For smaller diameter, non human-entry pipes, consideration should be made for the use of a slip liner. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 6-24 and Volume 2, Appendix B-39, B-40, Index 6.1.3.1 of this D.I.B. for general sliplining procedures and Caltrans Standard Special Provision No. 15-530 for sliplining using Plastic Pipe Liners”.

If diameter reduction is a concern, lining options may include use of a cured in place resin-impregnated pipeliner (pipes 300 mm to 2,700 mm diameter) or HDPE pipeliner (reformed/deformed) for pipes under 600 mm in diameter.

It should be noted that regardless of the lining method chosen, the lining itself does not need to provide load carrying ability or independent structural support; if the host pipe is not capable of doing this, it should be replaced. See Index 6.1.1, Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy. Replacement due longitudinal cracking should be considered as a final option and will be dependent on consultation with the Division of Underground Structures within the Division of Engineering Services. See Indices 5.1.1.2 and 11.1.1.

5.1.1.2.2 Transverse Cracks

Poor bedding and/or poor installation may cause transverse cracks. Cracks may occur across the top of pipe when settlement occurs and rocks or other areas of hard foundation material near the midpoint of a pipe section are not adequately covered with suitable bedding material. For repairs of transverse cracks, the same discussion of crack sealing and lining and other options for repairs as outlined under longitudinal cracks in Index 5.1.1.2.1 apply to repairing transverse cracks.

See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 3-47.

5.1.1.3 Spalls

Spalls (fractures) often occur along the edges of either longitudinal or transverse cracks when the crack is associated with overloading or poor support rather than tension cracking. For Spalls associated with cracks, the cause of cracking should first be determined.

If the cause is construction overloading, clean around the spall and apply a mortar patch. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix B-28 for more information on patching concrete. Also rout out the crack (if over 0.25 mm) to a depth of at least 12 mm and grout the crack. If the cracking is due to post construction loading, either the loading must be reduced, or the pipe should be replaced by another, which is capable of supporting the applied load.

Spalling can also be caused by corrosion of the steel reinforcing when corrosive water is able to reach the steel through cracks or shallow cover. As the steel corrodes, the oxidized steel expands and causes the concrete covering the steel to spall. It must be determined where the corrosive material is coming from (i.e., interior or exterior or both). If it is coming from the interior only, chip back around the spall and sandblast steel to remove the rust and apply mortar patch. In strongly acidic environments, such as drainage from mines or caustic water, various applied coatings (thermoplastic flame sprays, for example) or full-length sliplining may be warranted. See Index 5.1.1.2.1 for pipe liner references.

If the corrosive material is coming from both the interior and exterior, patch as indicated for the interior, but monitor the culvert to determine the rate of degradation for timing of future replacement.

If the spalls are caused by debris (logs, boulders, etc.), it is recommended to clean around the spalled area and apply a mortar patch, assuming no other damage is present.

See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 3-47.

5.1.1.4 Slabbing

The terms slabbing, shear slabbing, or slab shear refer to a radial failure of concrete that occurs from straightening of the reinforcement cage. It is characterized by large slabs of concrete “peeling” away from the sides of the pipe and a straightening of the reinforcement due to excessive deflection or shear cracks. Slabbing is a serious problem that may occur under high fills with reinforced concrete pipe of inadequate D-load strength and/or an inadequate depth of bedding on a rock foundation.

It may also occur under poor consolidation/backfill conditions with a high water table.

If it is determined that the culvert is structurally stable, the primary concern is protection of the inner (and exposed) layer of steel reinforcing against corrosion.

Clean around the damaged area, chip back and sandblast steel to remove the rust and apply mortar patch. In strongly acidic environments, such as drainage from mines or caustic water, various applied coatings (thermoplastic flame sprays, for example) or full-length sliplining may be warranted. See Index 5.1.1.2.1 for pipe liner references. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix B-28 for more information on patching concrete.

If the slabbing is due to post construction loading, either the loading must be reduced, or the pipe should be replaced with one capable of supporting the applied load. Refer to Standard Plans A62D and A62DA for the allowable minimum classes of RCP and D-load verses cover, and Section 19-3.04 (Foundation Treatment) of the Standard Specifications when solid rock or other unyielding material is encountered. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 3-47.

5.1.1.5 Invert Deterioration / Concrete Repairs

The inverts of precast concrete culverts are normally quite durable to damage. However, abrasion can be a serious problem in mountain areas where moderate-to-large sized rock is carried by fast moving water. When the water velocity that is generated by the 2-5 year return frequency flood is greater than 3 m/s, and the upstream channel has a coarse aggregate or large diameter bed load, abrasion related problems can be expected. See table in Index 2.1.2.3.

Deteriorated inverts in precast concrete culverts generally require paving to restore them to an acceptable functional condition. In order to accomplish this, and to dry the invert, it will be necessary to divert any flows present and/or perform the work during the summer for non-perennial streams and channels. For human entry pipes, guidelines for shotcrete/gunite paving, lining, and repairs, and invert paving are provided in appendices B-11 and B-29 of FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2. Also, see Section 53 of the Standard Specifications and Abrasion Table in Index 2.1.4.1. Where abrasion is present, a harder aggregate than the channel bedload should be substituted for fine aggregate. For smaller diameter precast concrete culverts with invert deterioration, trenchless robotic applicators for cement mortar with a polypropylene fiber mesh additive and concrete hardener could be considered. See Index 6.1.3.6.2 for a general discussion of cement mortar lining.

5.1.1.6 Crown Repair / Strengthening



Failed crown in Reinforced Concrete Box Culvert

Precast concrete culverts may sustain damage in their crown section due to the depth of cover being too shallow to adequately support and distribute vehicle live loads. The result may be cracking, spalling and distortion in the crown area. Some information on procedures that may be used to repair such problems is provided in appendix B-37 of FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2. For severe cases of crown deterioration (see photo), replacement may be necessary.

5.1.2 Corrugated Metal Pipes and Arches

The primary conditions that affect corrugated metal pipe (CMP) and pipe arch culverts are: (1) joint defects, (2) invert deterioration, (3) shape distortion, (4) soil migration, (5) corrosion, and (6) abrasion. See Indices 2.1.1.2.1, 2.1.1.3.2, 2.1.2, and 2.1.2.1-3 for

material characteristics, coatings and service life discussion relative to the deteriorating factors to metal pipe.

At steel pipe sites where abrasion is present, once the galvanizing layer has been worn away, corrosion will occur, followed by eventual perforation of the invert and loss of surrounding backfill soil. This in turn may lead to shape distortion depending on the compromise to the soil-pipe interaction resulting from the migration of backfill fines.

Aluminum corrodes differently than steel and is not susceptible to corrosion attack within the acceptable pH range of 5.5-8.5. Abrasion potential is dependent upon, volume, velocity, size, shape and hardness of bedload. Culvert flow velocities that frequently exceed 1.5 m/s are only allowable for low volumes of smaller, rounded bedload. In non-corrosive environments, Aluminum pipes may abrade quicker than steel and are not recommended in an environment where the velocity frequently exceeds 1.5 m/s and if angular or large sized bedload material is present. See Indices 2.1.2.2, 2.1.2.3 and HDM Index 854.4(2)(a) through (f), prior to selecting aluminum as an allowable alternative.

5.1.2.1 Joint repair

A discussion on joint requirements and performance is given in Topic 853.1 (2) and (3) of the Highway Design Manual. Table 853.1C provides information to help the designer select the proper joint under most conditions. See Chapter 5- 4.2 (b), FHWA Culvert Inspection Manual for a discussion on joint defects. The joint repair strategy should be dependent on the specific type of problem associated with the defect present i.e., misalignment, exfiltration, infiltration, and joint separation. Most of the concerns and repairs that are outlined in this D.I.B. under the joint repair section for precast concrete pipe also hold true for flexible pipe (i.e., misalignment, exfiltration, infiltration, and joint separation). Joint defects and associated repairs specifically for CMP and pipe arches are discussed in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 6-14 and 6-15. Also see Indices 5.1.1.1.2, and 5.1.1.1.3. Once again, pipe diameter will be an important factor to be considered because human entry is usually limited to pipes 600 mm or larger.

A variety of external loads and changing soil conditions may cause joints to open allowing backfill infiltration and water exfiltration, however, this is unlikely if the proper bands are used. Key factors in the inspection of joints are indications of backfill infiltration and water exfiltration causing erosion of surrounding soil resulting in surface holes or pavement deflections. See Index 11.1.1.

Sink hole damage (location unknown)



Loss of backfill fines



5.1.2.2 Abrasion and Invert Durability Repairs

Abrasion of the pipe wall occurs through the action of materials carried in flow (bedload) impacting on the pipe wall. It is affected by the frequency of heavy loads in the flow and velocity of the flow (1.5 m/s or greater). Obviously the amount, type and size of material carried in the flow have a significant impact on the life expectancy of the pipe, as does the material composition of the pipe itself.



Example of abrasive, angular, quartz – sand bedload

One of the most common problems with corrugated metal culverts is deterioration of the invert, usually due to a combination of corrosion and abrasion once the galvanizing layer has been worn away. It is for this reason that corrugated steel culverts are frequently coated with an asphaltic or other type of protective coating. However, with the exception of polyethylene (CSSRP), towards the upper end of the flow velocity range for moderate abrasion (depending on bedload angularity), and for the severe abrasion level, these coatings are generally ineffective and alternative invert materials are recommended. See Indices 2.1.2.1, 2.1.2.2, and 2.1.2.3, for corrosion and abrasion influences that must be included in any estimation of service life. If these influences have been overlooked or inadequately addressed during the original design, eventually the coatings are abraded or broken away, and corrosion that attacks the bare steel is accelerated by abrasion that constantly removes the somewhat protective oxide layer formed by corrosion.

Continuation of this action, if unchecked, will ultimately lead to loss of the invert and the creation of scour holes under the culvert (see pictures below).



Corrosion that attacks the bare steel is accelerated by abrasion



Worn invert on leading edge (to flow) of corrugations

Since a corrugated metal pipe is classified as a flexible structure that requires interaction with soil for stability, loss of the invert may result in severe distortion and collapse of the culvert (see Index 11.1.1).

Thus, repairs for severely deteriorated inverts in metal culverts must include:

- Structural repairs that restore the structural capacity of the culvert to resist circumferential thrust loads
- Re-establishing the connection between the soil and the pipe by filling voids immediately on the backside of culverts with low strength pressure grout mix. This will tend to crack rather than build an undesirable 'block'. Refer to Index 6.1.2 and page B-135 of FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, for procedures for grouting voids behind and under culverts.

Many types of repairs and corrective action may be taken to alleviate or minimize future invert durability problems. In most cases, the material selection should be both abrasion and corrosion resistant. Plastic slipliners are an effective rehabilitation method primarily for smaller pipe sizes in both abrasive and corrosive environments; they are available in a broad range of dimensions and joint type selections. See Index 6.1.3.1.1. Other abrasion and corrosion resistant sliplining materials for consideration may include:

- Centrifugally cast glass fiber reinforced polymer mortar (RPMP) and
- Fiber Reinforced Plastic (FRP). See Indices 2.1.1.1.3.1 and 2.1.1.1.3.5.

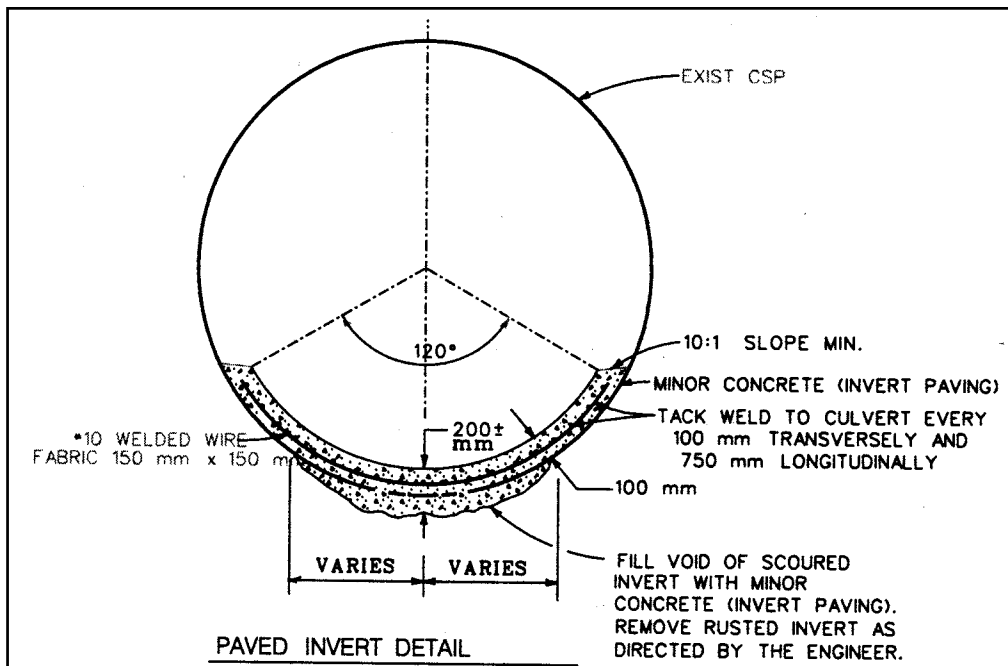
If access is limited, or the reduction of pipe cross sectional area resulting from sliplining is unacceptable, it may be necessary to use an alternative lining method such as cement mortar lining with a polypropylene fiber mesh reinforcement additive, lining with a machine wound PVC liner, or CIPP. See Indices 6.1.3.6.2, 6.1.3.5 and 6.1.3.2.

In general, for pipes large enough for human entry with invert durability problems, sliplining should not be the first choice and most of the work may be classified in two categories: (1) invert paving, to restore or replace weakened inverts, (2) steel armor plating, to provide increased resistance to abrasion and impact damage.

A summary of materials/invert protection recommended for various levels abrasion is presented in a table in Index 2.1.2.3.

5.1.2.2.1 Invert Paving with Concrete

One of the most effective ways to rehabilitate corroded and severely deteriorated inverts of CMP is by paving them with reinforced concrete using Class 3 or Minor Concrete or shotcrete. If abrasion is present, the aggregate source should be harder material than the streambed load and have a high durability index (consult with District Materials Branch for sampling and recommendation). Consideration should be given for using a higher strength concrete mix with a nominal strength of 42,000 kPa (6000 psi) or higher. See Standard Specifications; Sections 90, 51 and 53.



The maximum grading indicated (37.5 mm) for coarse aggregate may need to be modified if the concrete must be pumped. The abrasion resistance of cementitious materials is governed by both its compressive strength and hardness of the aggregate. There is a correlation between decreasing the water/cement ratio, increasing compressive strength and increasing abrasion resistance. Therefore, where abrasion is a significant factor, the lowest practicable water/cement ratios the hardest available aggregates should be used.

A typical design is detail for invert paving is shown above. Paving thickness will range from 75 mm to 150 mm depending on abrasiveness of site, and paving limits typically vary from 90 to 120 degrees for the internal angle. Sufficient steel reinforcing (usually welded wire fabric) should be installed and securely anchored to ensure the ability of the culvert to resist circumferential thrust loads.



Metal culvert with paved concrete invert

Example of either inadequate concrete mix design or poor quality control for invert paving in an abrasive environment (Right)



Wear cones (colored concrete cones) can be placed to monitor wear. See Appendix B-11, FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, for procedures for shotcrete/gunite paving, lining, and repairs (all human entry). See Appendix B-29, FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, for procedures for invert paving. There are advantages to both types of materials and application methods that are discussed in these appendices.

5.1.2.2.2 Invert Paving with Concreted Rock Slope Protection (RSP)

This method should be limited to large diameter (3 m or greater) that are located on (hydraulically) steep slopes and operate under inlet control. Lining the culvert barrel invert with concreted RSP can provide an effective countermeasure to abrasion and increase barrel roughness thus decreasing velocity within the barrel. A nominal strength of 31,000 kPa (4500 psi) may be used in the concrete. The rock size may vary, however, it is imperative to achieve adequate embedment into the concrete. At the culvert ends, a smooth transition back to the channel bed profile should be provided with adequate embedment to prevent undermining.

5.1.2.2.3 Steel Armor Plating

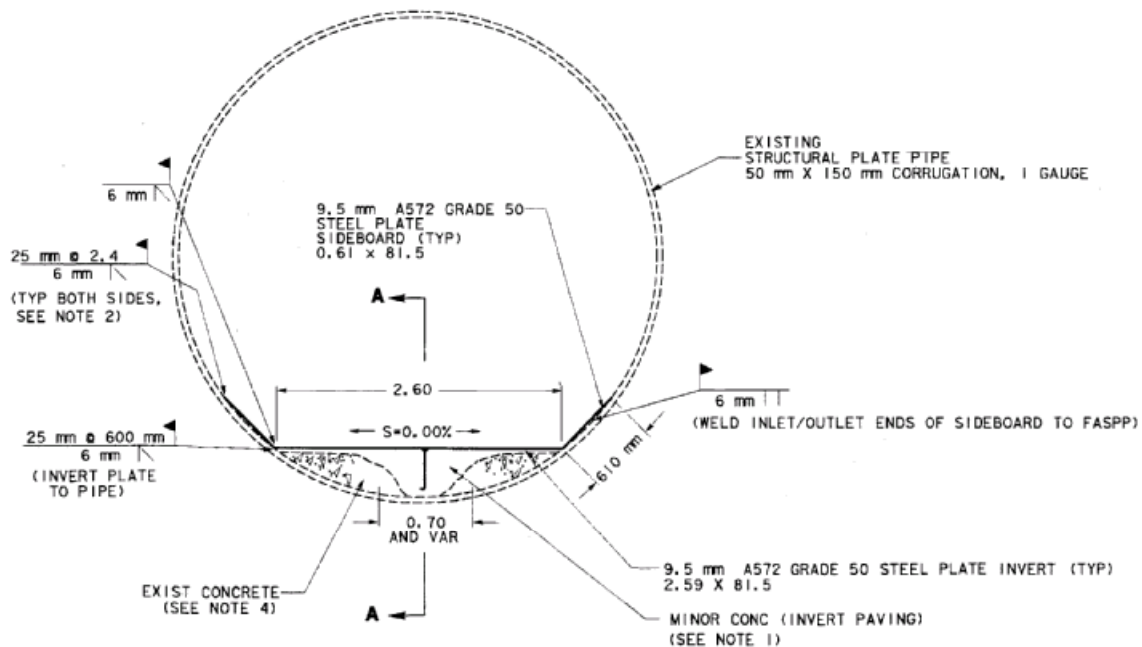
In locations with severe abrasion (see Index 2.1.2.3) a viable option to invert paving with concrete may be to armor plate the invert with steel plates (thickness between 9.5 and 25 mm). This method is used in large diameter pipes that can accommodate a reduction in waterway area. The smooth, wide invert spreads wear over a greater area and is less of an impediment to flow than corrugated metal. It is important to securely attach steel armor plates to the host pipe. See 03-Nev-49 pictures below of 9.5 mm thick steel armor plate example at Shady Creek that replaced a concrete invert lining.



Finished 9.5 mm thick steel plate invert



Workers Placing steel plates (see detail next page)



Example Steel Armor Plating Detail

Several other materials that have been successfully used to plate inverts subject to abrasion include guardrail elements, railroad rails and bridge deck grating.

5.1.2.2.4 Shape Distortion

The single most important feature to observe and measure when inspecting corrugated metal culverts is the cross-sectional shape of the culvert barrel. The corrugated metal culvert barrel depends on the backfill or embankment to maintain its proper shape and stability. The culvert will deflect, settle or distort when the backfill does not provide the required support. See Index 2.1.1.2, for a general discussion on flexible pipe behavior.

Flexible piping must utilize the soil to construct an envelope of supporting material around the pipe so that the deflection is maintained at an acceptable level. The extent to which the pipe depends on this enveloping soil is a function of the depth of cover, surface loading and the ring stiffness of the pipe. The deflection of flexible pipe is the sum total of two major components: the "installation deflection", which reflects the technique and care by which the pipe was handled and installed, and the "service deflection", which reflects the accommodation of the constructed pipe-soil system (pipe and compacted backfill) to the subsequent earth loading and other loadings. Overloading or soil movement may cause distortion.

It is quite common to have at least some symmetrical or unsymmetrical distortion in corrugated metal culverts. A flexible pipe has been defined as one that will deflect at least 2 percent without structural distress. It is also common that the culvert is stable in that distorted shape; that is, it is not continuing to distort. Therefore, it is important to

determine by measurement and monitoring whether the culvert is stable in its distorted shape or whether it is continuing to become distorted. Usually 85-90% of deflection occurs within the first month of construction. This is the time that it takes for the soil to settle and stabilize. However, if there is instability in the backfill, the pipe will continue to change shape. In general, deflections of more than 7-8% (either horizontal or vertical) should be noted and may lead to structural problems. Beyond 10%, even joints designed to be watertight will be prone to leakage and the associated potential for soil migration/piping. Seam separation and/or buckling may occur for deflections greater than 15%. If deflection is identified, the location, by distance from the inlet and degrees from invert, should be noted and the length of the horizontal and vertical axes of the culvert barrel should also be recorded. Unless water-tightness is an issue, monitoring deflections below 10 - 12% is typically the appropriate course of action so that a determination can be made of whether the conditions are worsening. Beyond 10 - 12%, it is recommended that plans for rehabilitation/replacement be undertaken.



Example of shape distortion caused by soil movement

The overall condition of the culvert should be assessed, as well as the soil-pipe conditions that caused the deformation to occur. Symmetrical deflection of the crown may be indicative of problems with support of the bottom of the culvert or insufficient backfill/cover over the top of the culvert. Unsymmetrical deformation of the top of the culvert may be the result of loss of soil support on one side of the bottom (potentially from problems due to infiltration, infiltration and piping at joint(s) or perforated invert) or improper compaction of the backfill on one side of the culvert. Thus the shape may not be symmetrical for either the entire length of the culvert or individual sections of it. Therefore, the conditions that caused the deformation must be assessed and the rehabilitation plan must include correcting the underlying problem. See Appendix B-34, FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, for procedures for repair at a distorted section.

The decision to repair (re-compact embedment material, grout voids, repair joints or line invert) versus replace the culvert by trenching and cover or by other trenchless methods such as jacking or microtunneling, is dependent in part on the structural integrity of the

culvert. If the culvert must be replaced, the decision to replace by trench and cover versus other trenchless methods will be influenced by cost, the need to maintain traffic during construction and possibly other environmental concerns. Relining by sliplining or other methods that are outlined in this D.I.B. should not be used on host culverts with excessive (generally greater than 15-20 %) deflection because the host pipe must be structurally sound and capable of withstanding all loads. See Index 6.1.1 for Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy. However, if the host pipe can be adequately stabilized, stopping further distortion, and the soil-pipe interaction re-established, it may be feasible to rehabilitate pipes with deflections beyond 10-12%. See Index 11.1.1.

5.1.2.3 Soil Migration

When the pipe is located beneath the ground water level, consideration must be given to the possibility of loss of side support through soil migration (the conveying by groundwater of finer particle soils into void spaces of coarser soils). Generally, migration can occur where the void spaces in the pipe backfill are sufficiently large enough to allow the intrusion of eroded fines from the trench sidewalls. For migration to occur, the in-situ soil must be erodible, and there must be a flow path for the water. Normally, erodible soils are fine sands and silts and special clays. This situation is exacerbated where a significant gradient exists in the ground water from the outside of the trench towards the inside, i.e., the trench must act as a drain, and/or the pipe joints are not watertight (see Highway Design Manual 853.1 (3) – Joint Performance – Watertight Joint).

As a remedial measure for such anticipated conditions, depending on the amount of shape distortion, grouting, or a combination of expansion rings (refer to previous discussion for sealing culvert joints with expansion ring gaskets or repair sleeves under Index 5.1.1.1.3.2), and Slurry Cement pressure grouted backfill in lieu of Structure Backfill, or a combination of Structure Backfill with Filter Fabric (only if external access is feasible) is recommended. Also see appendices B-26 and B-34, FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2 for procedures for sealing culvert joints and repair at a distorted section.

5.1.2.4 Corrosion

There are several main types of corrosion leading to failure in pipes – atmospheric, microbiological and galvanic corrosion. Any of these types of corrosion are influenced by the structure of the soil, but the most commonly used criteria to indicate relative corrosivity to steel are the pH or hydrogen ion concentration, the specific electrical resistance, and the chloride and sulfate content of both soil and water. Other factors that can influence the corrosion rates are the effects of industrial effluents from either commercial or residential sources or stray electrical currents in close proximity to the pipe. Stray current sources include electricity transmission lines, electrified rail lines and the like.

In general, in areas of high rainfall, the soils tend to be acidic and of high electrical resistivity. Acid soils are generally regarded to be corrosive, while a high electrical resistivity is indicative of low corrosivity. Some typical values of the resistivity of soils and waters are shown in Appendix D (Table 5-1). Table 5-2 in Appendix D shows a rating of the soils corrosivity as determined by specific electrical resistance. Visual indications of the relative corrosivity of various soil types are shown Table 5-3 of Appendix D.



Refer to Indices 2.1.1.2.1 and 2.1.1.3.2 for a discussion on how service life is estimated relative to pH and coatings for metal culverts.

Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-12 to 2-14, 6-13 and Volume 2, Appendix B-31, for a discussion on the corrosion process and procedures for cathodically protecting metal culverts.

Aluminum corrodes differently than steel and is not susceptible to corrosion attack within the acceptable pH range of 5.5-8.5. See Indices 2.1.2.2 and 2.1.2.3 when considering abrasion potential.

5.1.3 Structural Plate Pipe

Since they too are flexible structures that are made from metal, they suffer from the same types of problems, as do corrugated metal and pipe arch culverts. In addition, they also suffer from problems that are unique to their style of construction, which is assembly with individual pieces of metal that are fastened together with bolts.

5.1.3.1 Seam Defects

The longitudinal seams of structural steel plate culverts are subject to displacement and cracking due to incorrect assembly of the plates and differential soil pressures.

Repairs are made by splicing, re-bolting or welding with reinforcing steel to the inside corrugation valleys at the location of seam distress. See Appendix B-38, FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2.

Longitudinal or transverse seams in structural plate assemblies may deteriorate due to sheared or corroded connector bolts, lost or corroded nuts, or plate tears.

Except in rare scenarios, the deficient seam must be welded. This can be costly and can raise safety concerns due to the toxicity of fumes from melted zinc (galvanizing). Often the introduction of reinforcing bars welded to the base structural plate metal is the only practical way to repair the deteriorated seam.

Whatever repair is made must be structurally sufficient to accommodate the load thrust, which will be present in the shell of the conduit. Therefore, a simple "tack" weld may not be adequate.

If the seams are to be repaired using shotcrete or gunite, brackets, firmly attached to the structural plates, must be incorporated to anchor the concrete mix to the plates. Because of the inherent low thrust resistance in such repair, this type of seam repair may be useful only for transverse seams.

Again, the conditions that caused the seam defects must be assessed and the rehabilitation plan must include repairing the seams and correcting the underlying problem and/or stabilizing the soil envelope if necessary.

5.1.3.2 Joint Repair, Invert Durability and Shape Distortion

The same discussions outlined under invert durability and shape distortion for corrugated metal pipe also apply to structural steel plate. There are ordinarily no joints in structural plate culverts, only seams. Distress in circumferential seams is rare and can result from severe differential deflection caused by a foundation or soil failure – usually as a result of invert failure (see photos in Index 5.1.2.2). Depending upon the degree of deflection, it may be possible to rehabilitate the invert, however, contrary to the recommendation under “Joint Defects” on page 6-19 of FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, and Appendix B-26 of Volume 2, internal steel expansion ring gasket joint sealing systems are not recommended for circumferential seam repairs. If it is not possible to rehabilitate the invert, and there is severe differential deflection present, replacement is recommended.

5.1.4 Plastic Pipe

Plastic pipe culverts are a relatively new form of culvert in sizes ranging from 300 mm to 1200 mm for new pipe and potentially up to 3000 mm for use as a liner with headquarters approval. Refer to Indices 2.1.1.2.2, and 2.1.2 for discussion of material and service life factors.

Although plastics are not subject to corrosion and show good resistance in abrasive environments, they are still part of the “flexible” pipe materials family and therefore most of the discussion and repair procedures that are outlined under the joint repair, shape distortion and soil migration for metal pipe will also apply to plastic. See Indices 5.1.2.1, 5.1.2.2.4 and 5.1.2.3. However, there are some issues that are unique to plastic; including stress cracking and problems associated with exposure to ultraviolet rays at the ends and being flammable. Cracks in high-density polyethylene (HDPE) pipes are most typically going to occur at a seam. In reference to HDPE, it is worth noting that since it is a relatively new culvert product, both the material qualities and physical design are undergoing continuous change. Pipe made today has a different profile, different corrugation (annular instead of helical or spiral) and is made with revised resin compounds as the industry upgrades its products. Given that our standards for placement have been relatively constant, we are more likely to see cracking and other problems in older pipes.



Profile of pipe: Note wall buckling and obvious oval shape. This 1050 mm diameter pipe was installed in 1994. The pipe is 25 m long and has a maximum cover of about 3 m. Separations of the joints ranged from 25 to 75 mm. Rippling of the sidewalls is apparent throughout the length of the pipe (see below).



Small crack and wall rippling



Splitting of 1500 mm diameter Pipe. This pipe was installed in 1996 by another state.

Compared to other pipe materials, plastic may have a higher potential for damage from improper handling, and a higher potential for damage from improper backfilling procedures including wall cracks, excessive deflection, bulges, joint separation, excessive joint overlap caused by longitudinal expansion and wall rippling and buckling.

Some of the problems that have been outlined for plastic pipe may be monitored, such as deflection (see Index 5.1.2.2.4). However, pipes with excessive deflection will need to be replaced or lined with a rigid material that is capable of supporting all ground and traffic loads. See Index 11.1.1.

Depending on the problem, excluding excessive deflection, other possible choices for repair not discussed in the previously referenced indices include, lining with cured in place pipe, machine wound PVC or replacement. See Index 6.1 and 9.1.

6.1 GENERAL CULVERT BARREL REHABILITATION TECHNIQUES

6.1.1 Caltrans Host Pipe Structural Philosophy

In general, if the host pipe cannot be made capable of sustaining design loads, it should be replaced rather than rehabilitated. This is a conservative approach and when followed eliminates the need to make detailed evaluations of the liners ability to effectively accept and support dead and live loads. Prior to making the decision whether or not to rehabilitate the culvert and/or which method to choose, a determination of the structural integrity of the host pipe must be made. See Index 2.1 of this D.I.B. for a discussion on loading, bedding and behavior of flexible and rigid pipe. Existing voids within the culvert backfill or in the base material under the existing culvert should be filled with grout to re-establish its load carrying capability prior to rehabilitating any type of culvert (see Index 6.1.2 below).

Also, see Index 11.1.1 for a discussion on supporting the roadway and traffic loads.

Other entities have adopted procedures for assigning structural capacity to liners. While this is presently not Caltrans practice, under unique circumstances, or where extraordinary costs for rehabilitation are likely, it is recommended that the designer consult with the Headquarters Office of Highway Drainage Design within the Division of Design to determine if consideration of these alternative analysis methods is justified.

6.1.2 Grouting Voids in Soil Envelope

External grouting is the introduction of a chemical or Portland cement based grout (possibly with special admixtures including polymer resins) into voids directly behind or beneath a culvert. Grouting may be accomplished from the inside of the culvert through prepared grout holes in the culvert wall or from grout tubes drilled through the fill. See Index 5.1.1.1.3 for a discussion on grout types.

There are basically three alternative procedures for grouting voids behind the culvert as described in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix B-30, page B-135:

- Gravity flow from above the void
- Gravity flow through a tremie pipe or tube (from bottom up)
- Pressure grouting

Consult with the Regional Geotechnical Engineer to determine the extent of any voids that may exist in the backfill material adjacent to the culvert. Voids not immediately adjacent to the culvert (i.e., beyond 300 mm) that developed through infiltration of fines into the culvert may be filled from above using a series of drill holes. See Index 11.1.2, compaction grouting.

For bidding purposes, the plans should include these details:

General site conditions, access, end treatments, (profiles and grade), staging, voids, special situations, restrictions, etc. The Geotechnical Engineer should be contacted for material selection items for filling voids in the backfill.

6.1.3 Rehabilitation Families

6.1.3.1 Sliplining (General)

Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 6-23 through 6-29.

Note: Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy in Index 6.1.1 is intended to supersede any discussion by FHWA for restoring structural strength with slipliners. A major deficiency in sliplining may be an ultimate lack of soil-structure interaction. For flexible pipe, this is a crucial physical characteristic, which directly relates to the structural integrity of the pipe. Therefore, thorough grouting of the space between the culverts should be specified for construction.

Rehabilitation of culverts with slipliners is one of several methods available for extending the life of an existing culvert. Sliplining is not suitable for all situations. Prior to any proposal to rehabilitate a culvert with a pipe liner a thorough examination of the existing culvert and consultation with the District Hydraulics Unit to discuss possible alternatives and cost effective solutions must be performed.

Sliplining consists of sliding a new culvert inside an existing distressed culvert as an alternative to total replacement. This method is much faster to complete than a remove and replace option and often will yield a significant extension of service life at less cost than complete replacement, particularly where there are deep fills or where trenching would cause extensive traffic disruptions.

When choosing the material for a culvert liner, consideration should be given to the environment and the physical needs of the installation including handling and weight of the liner and construction footprint. In some cases, a smoother culvert material will offset the reduction in culvert diameter. The adequacy of outfall protection should be evaluated when the culvert liner results in higher discharge velocities.

Selection of the appropriate liner material should take into account the reasons and mode of failure of the existing pipe. High-density polyethylene and polyvinyl chloride pipes in both solid wall and ribbed profiles have become common materials for sliplining culverts, particularly in diameters up to 1800 mm and are discussed in detail in this section. However, for any plastic liner or slipliner, if the diameter exceeds 1500 mm, headquarters approval will be required. See Index 7.1.6.1.

Corrugated metal pipes are sometimes used for larger diameter sliplining projects. Liner pipes with smooth exteriors usually will allow for easier insertion, particularly if the culvert being rehabilitated has a corrugated profile. Almost any type of culvert can be sliplined with an appropriately sized commercially available pipe. See 'Products' on pages 6-25 and 6-26 of FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1. Note that

some of the products described on page 6-26 under plastic pipe (Nu-Pipe and U-Liner) belong under the Fold and Form family rather than sliplining and are described elsewhere in this document. Not listed, but also viable alternatives, is fiber reinforced polymer mortar (RPMP), or fiber reinforced polymer concrete (FRPC), which is about a third of the weight per foot of precast RCP. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 2-27 and Index 2.1.1.1.3.1. Other viable materials for sliplining may include: fiber reinforced concrete pipe (FRCP), Polyester Resin Concrete (PRC) pipe, fiber reinforced plastic (FRP), ductile iron and welded steel. See Indices- 2.1.1.1.3.2-5.



Inserting a PVC slipliner

Prior to sliplining, the existing culvert must be surveyed carefully to determine the maximum diameter of culvert that can be inserted through the entire length of the host pipe. Any deflections in the culvert walls will become control points and any alignment changes coupled with deflections can reduce the slipliner diameter significantly. Major deflections may indicate the need for other rehabilitation techniques. It may be necessary to install rails on which to slide the liner culvert.

Once stream diversion methods are in place and the work area is stabilized, the liner pipe is moved into the culvert either one section at a time or as an entire unit. All water and debris must be removed from the existing pipe prior to grouting. The liner is pushed with jacks or machinery such as a backhoe. When the liner is in place, the space between the culverts generally must be grouted to prevent seepage and soil migration and to establish a connection between the liner, the host pipe and the soil thus providing uniform support and eliminating point loads. Grout may be either gravity fed into the annular space between the liner and the existing culvert or pumped through a hose or small diameter pipe (40 - 50 mm PVC) laid in the annular space. When the lining is fairly long (30 m or more), gravity feeding of grout will be difficult unless additional openings in the top of the existing culvert are made for intermediate insertion of the grout. When grout is pumped, the small pipe or hose is typically removed as the space is gradually filled. When this is difficult due to field conditions, the small pipe or hose may be banded to the liner with "tees" placed a 1.5 m intervals.

To avoid floating of the liner and ensure a uniform grout thickness around the liner pipe, the grout should be placed in lifts. Each lift of grout should be allowed to set before continuing further up the culvert walls. Alternatively, the liner can be plugged at the ends and filled with water to prevent floating during the grouting operation, or blocks can be used (at least two sets per pipe section) to effectively rest between the liner and the existing culvert.



PVC lined storm drain with grout tube at upper right and drain tube at bottom

The grouting process will apply pressure to the liner pipe. Minimum liner pipe stiffness must be selected such that the pipe strength exceeds the maximum specified grouting pressure. See Index 6.1.3.1.1.4 for grouting plastic pipe slipliners.

In accordance with the specifications, the contractor will be required to perform a test on each type of grout and grout system proposed and shall submit a grouting plan to the Engineer.

Each project will have its own unique site-specific conditions that will require a unique grouting plan for that site. The pipe length and slope are directly related to grouting pressure and the plan must outline the proposed grouting method and procedures to stay below the maximum grouting pressure. Most grouting work will be sub-contacted and the quality of grouting contractors can vary considerably. For quality assurance purposes it is recommended that the following list of submittals and calculations required by the grouting sub-contractor should be forwarded by the Project Engineer and included within the Resident Engineer file:

- 1) The proposed grouting mix
- 2) The proposed grout densities and viscosity
- 3) Initial set time of the grout
- 4) The 24-hour and 28-day minimum grout compressive strengths
- 5) The grout working time before a 15 percent change in density or viscosity occurs
- 6) The proposed grouting method and procedures
- 7) The maximum injection pressures
- 8) Proposed grout stage volumes (e.g., Stage 1, to spring line; Stage 2, fully grouted)
- 9) Bulkhead designs and locations
- 10) Buoyant force calculations during grouting
- 11) Flow control
- 12) Provisions for re-establishment of service connections
- 13) Pressure gauge, recorder, and field equipment certifications (e.g., calibration by an approved certified lab)
- 14) Vent location plans
- 15) Written confirmation that the Contractor has coordinated grouting procedures with the grout installer and the liner pipe manufacturer

Data for 1) through 5) shall be derived from trial grout batches by an approved, independent testing laboratory.

For each different type of grout or variation in procedure or installation, a complete package shall be submitted. The submittal shall include each of the above items and the sewer locations or conditions to which it applies. The Contractor shall obtain approval from the Engineer for any changes to be made in grout mix, grouting procedure, or installation prior to commencement of grouting operations.

(Submittal requirements and procedures copied with permission from Standard Specifications from Public works Construction "Greenbook" 2000)

For further general information on the procedures for sliplining culverts, refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix B-39, page B-174.

6.1.3.1.1 Sliplining using Plastic Pipe Liners

The following information is intended to provide design guidance regarding the rehabilitation of existing pipe culverts with plastic pipe liners. Indices 6.1.3.1.1.1 through 6.1.3.1.1.7 below, supersede DIB No. 76 dated January 1, 1995.

6.1.3.1.1.1 Allowable Types of Plastic Liners

Plastic pipe made of polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and high-density polyethylene (HDPE) is commercially available in a variety of diameters and styles that are adequate for the purpose of relining existing culverts. Any plastic culvert that is discussed in Section 64 of the Caltrans Standard Specifications will perform adequately. In addition, many types of solid wall, profile wall and ribbed PVC and HDPE are manufactured that are also capable of performing the necessary function. No attempt is made to list every type of plastic pipe that could be used. The following information describes some of the most likely alternatives that are readily available.

The most economical types currently manufactured are SDR 35 PVC sewer pipe (AASHTO M-278), PVC ribbed pipe (AASHTO M-304), Type C (corrugated interior) and Type S (smooth interior) corrugated HDPE (AASHTO M-294). HDPE solid wall fusion welded or Snap-Tite™ (ASTM F-714) is relatively expensive but has a variety of diameters and wall thicknesses. HDPE solid wall pipe is listed by Standard Dimension Ratio (SDR) classification (Standard Dimension Ratio given by the ratio of outside diameter to wall thickness with the lower SDR's having thicker walls). Also available is PVC profile wall sewer pipe (ASTM F-794 and F-949). Also relatively expensive, this smooth interior and smooth exterior pipe (closed profile) with an internal rib can be easier to install than other types and does not require couplers, belling, or other connectors that would increase the pipe diameter at the joints. Several pipe products are made specifically for sliplining with joint systems designed to maintain a constant outside and inside diameter. Some examples of these are the Contech A2 Liner Pipe™ (PVC), the Vylon PVC Slipliner Pipe™, and the Weholite™ Culvert Reline System (HDPE).

6.1.3.1.2 Strength Requirements

Pipe used as a liner will not typically be subjected to the degree of loading experienced by the original culvert (see Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy). In most cases, although the invert of the original culvert has deteriorated, the load carrying capacity has not been significantly diminished. As a result, strength requirements of liner pipe are more dependent on a determination of potential grouting pressures and the need for the liner pipe to withstand handling and installation stresses.

Pipe stiffness is a common term used in describing plastic pipe's resistance to deflection prior to placing any backfill. The higher the number, the stiffer the pipe, and the better the pipe's resistance to grouting pressure and handling.

The following table lists minimum pipe stiffness in kiloPascals. Testing for pipe stiffness is performed in accordance with ASTM D-2412:

Nominal Dia. (mm)	PVC* SDR-35	PVC Ribbed	PVC* Profile	HDPE Type S	HDPE Solid Wall (SDR)				
					15.5	17	21	26	32.5
375	320	NA	320	290	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
400	320	NA	NA	NA	590	490	150	75	40
450	320	220	320	275	590	490	150	75	40
500	NA	NA	NA	NA	590	490	150	75	40
525	320	190	320	NA	590	490	150	75	40
538	NA	NA	NA	NA	590	490	150	75	40
600	320	165	320	235	590	490	150	75	40
675	320	150	320	215	590	490	150	75	40
750	NA	130	320	195	590	490	150	75	40
825	NA	NA	NA	170	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
850	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	490	150	75	40
900	NA	110	320	150	NA	490	150	75	40
975	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1050	NA	95	320	140	NA	NA	NA	75	40
1125	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1200	NA	80	320	125	NA	NA	NA	75	40
1350	NA	NA	320	NA					
1400	NA	NA	NA	NA					
1500	NA	NA	320	95					
1600	NA	NA	NA	NA					

*No Caltrans Standards

6.1.3.1.3 Pipe Dimensions

When determining the appropriateness of relining an existing culvert, an assessment of the discharge capacity of the liner must be made to verify that the liner pipe, due to its smaller diameter than the existing culvert, will allow the design discharge to be passed. To make this assessment, selection of the liner must consider the effect on the liner diameter due to liner wall thickness and, in particular, the space requirements of the liner joints. This maximum exterior dimension of the liner must be able to be inserted through the existing culvert, while also considering deformations in the existing culvert, minor culvert bends, and any other disturbances

in the bore of the existing pipe. These considerations make it imperative that the designer obtains accurate field measurements of the existing culvert to determine the minimum available clearance prior to selecting liner types and diameters. A good rule of thumb for sizing the liner is to select a liner diameter that is 20% less than the diameter of the host pipe. Be aware that manufacturers occasionally delete existing products and often bring new products to the market. Contact with industry representatives is encouraged to verify the availability of any products that will be specified.

The following tables provide industry-supplied pipe inside and outside diameters. Dimensions will vary somewhat between different manufacturers and must be verified prior to being specified. Also see FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, pages A-40 to A47.

PVC SDR 35 PIPE DIMENSIONS

<u>Nominal Dia.</u> <u>(mm)</u>	<u>Inside Dia.</u> <u>(mm)</u>	<u>Outside Dia. (Inc. Joint)</u> <u>(mm)</u>
375	366.5	457.2
450	447.8	558.3
525	527.8	651.0
600	593.9	731.5
675	669.3	825.5

PVC RIBBED PIPE DIMENSIONS

<u>Nominal Dia.</u> <u>(mm)</u>	<u>Inside Dia.</u> <u>(mm)</u>	<u>Outside Dia. (Inc. Joint)</u> <u>(mm)</u>
450	448.3	530.4
525	527.1	613.7
600	596.9	695.5
675	673.1	782.3
750	749.3	865.6
900	901.7	1032.9
1050	1054.1	1174.5
1200	1206.5	1336.3

HDPE TYPE S PIPE DIMENSIONS

Nominal Dia. (mm)	Inside Dia. (mm)	Outside Dia. (Inc. 1. Bell- & Spigot, 2. Split Coupler)	
		1. (mm)	2. (mm)
375	381.0	446	460.5
450	457.2	538	548.5
600	609.6	759	731.5
750	762.0	892	904.5
900	914.4	1059	1071.5
1050	1066.8	1212	1199.5
1200	1219.2	1361	1351.5
1500	1512.0	1684	1696.5

HDPE SDR PIPE DIMENSIONS

Nom. Dia. (mm)	Avg. O.D. (mm)	Minimum Wall Thickness (mm)				
		SDR 32.5	SDR 26	SDR21	SDR15.5	SDR11
400	406.4	12.5	15.6	19.4	26.2	37.0
450	457.2	14.1	17.6	21.8	29.5	41.6
500	508.0	15.6	19.5	24.2	32.8	46.2
538	546.1	16.8	21.0	26.0	35.2	49.7
559	558.8	17.2	21.5	26.6	36.0	50.8
600	609.6	18.7	23.4	29.0	39.3	55.4
700	711.2	21.9	27.4	33.9	45.9	64.6
750	762.0	23.4	29.3	36.3	49.1	69.3
800	800	24.6	30.8	38.1	51.6	77.1
850	863.6	26.6	33.2	41.1	55.7 --	--
900	914.4	28.1	35.2	43.5	59.0	--
1000	1000	30.8	38.5	47.6	--	--
1050	1066.8	32.8	41.0	50.8	--	--
1200	1200.0	36.9	46.2	57.2	--	--
1350	1371.6	42.2	52.8	69.2	--	--
1400	1404.5	45.7	57.0	70.7		
1600	1605.5	52.2	65.2	80.8		

Note: 1. Figures shown in bold are unique to one pipe manufacturer.

PVC CLOSED PROFILE WALL PIPE DIMENSIONS

<u>Nominal Dia. (mm)</u>	<u>Inside Dia. (mm)</u>	<u>Outside Dia. (Inc. Joint) (mm)</u>
525	527.1	561.6
600	596.9	637.9
675	673.1	717.1
750	749.3	797.9
900	901.7	960.1
1050	1054.1	1122.7
1200	1206.5	1284.5
1350	1358.9	1447.8
1500	1511.3	1609.1

PVC CORRUGATED - SMOOTH INTERIOR PROFILE WALL PIPE DIMENSIONS

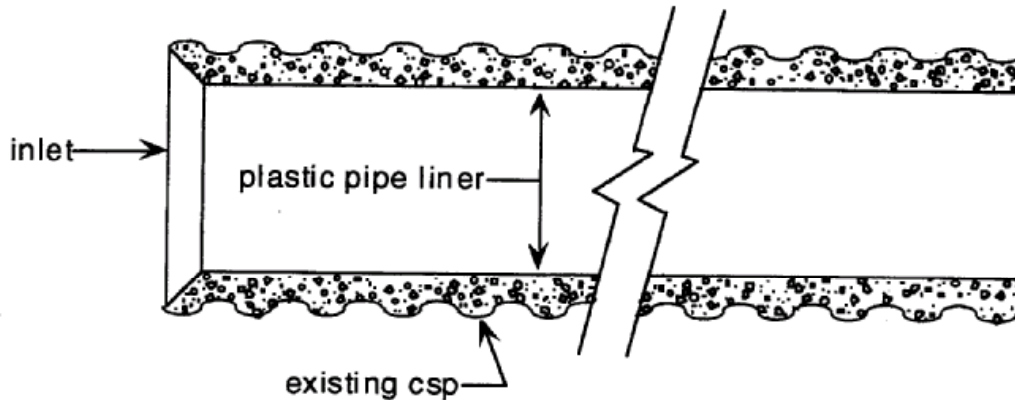
<u>Nominal Dia. (mm)</u>	<u>Inside Dia. (mm)</u>	<u>Outside Dia. (Inc. Joint) (mm)</u>
300	297.2	325.1
375	363.2	398.8
450	447.0	487.7
525	525.8	574.0
600	596.9	650.2
750	749.3	817.9
900	901.7	983.0

6.1.3.1.1.4 Grouting

See Index 6.1.3.1 for general grouting considerations, contractor submittals, grouting plan, and quality control.

Unless site constraints make it infeasible, full length grouting of the liner is recommended. This not only provides a more secure attachment to the existing culvert, but also reduces the potential for joint leakage to create piping problems. Although generally not a concern, it also provides additional strength if there is deterioration of the existing culvert, particularly where fill heights exceed currently recommended values for plastic culverts.

The grout should be a low-density foam concrete consisting of Portland cement, fly ash and additives. This type of mix should allow the grout to flow easily and completely fill the entire annular space around the liner pipe (see below).



Grouting of annular space between inserted pipe and culvert.

Grouting pressure resistance of the liner varies with pipe stiffness. The gauged pumping pressure shall not exceed the liner pipe manufacturer's approved recommendations or the values shown below:

HDPE Solid-Wall:

<u>SDR</u>	<u>Maximum safe annular grouting pressure (kPa)</u>
32.5	28
26	55
21	110
19	145
15.5	248

Maximum safe annular grouting pressure (kPa) for other materials:

- Divide minimum pipe stiffness shown in Index 6.1.3.1.1.2 by 4.5
- Centrifugally cast glass fiber reinforced polymer mortar (RPMP): 40 kPa or pipe stiffness divided by 3
- Divide minimum pipe stiffness by 4.5 for CMP and Fiber Reinforced Plastic

Verification must be made that the joint type specified is also able to withstand anticipated grouting pressures.

6.1.3.1.1.5 Joints

In general, joints in pipes used for slipliners will not be subjected to the same performance requirements as are joints in direct burial applications. The encasement

provided by both the host pipe and the annular space grouting will typically isolate slipliner pipe joints from problems associated with infiltration/exfiltration, separation or misalignment. What is important is an understanding of the physical dimensions of various pipe joints (see tables in Index 6.1.3.1.1.3) to ensure that there is adequate space to both insert the liner pipe and feed in the annular space grout (at least 25 mm of space on all sides is desirable), and to ensure that the joint is sufficiently tight to preclude migration of grout through the joint during the annular space grouting operation (which may have operating pressures of several kPa). At a minimum, joints described as soil tight in Index 853.1(3) of the HDM should be specified, and where it is anticipated that grouting pressures are likely to exceed 25 kPa, joints meeting watertight requirements should be considered.

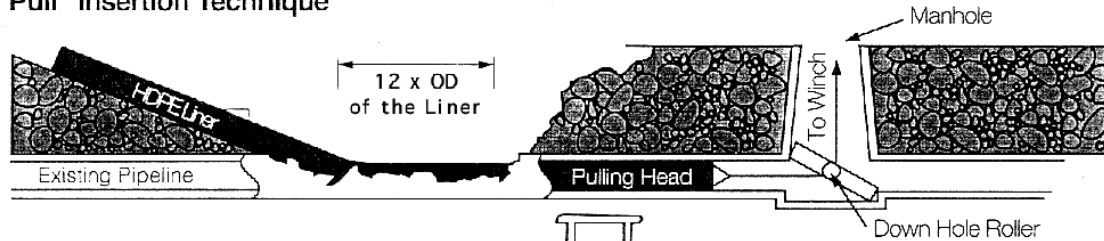
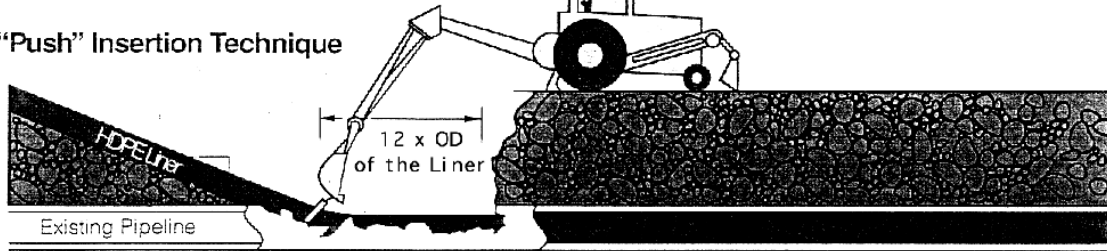
Several manufacturers have developed modified joints for their pipes specifically for sliplining applications. This generally is accomplished by routing out male and female ends of the pipes and eliminating the bell end. As such, the increased external dimension of the bell is eliminated, minimizing the loss of host pipe cross sectional area. Several of these specially modified pipes are available in both PVC and HDPE. Some examples are given in Index 6.1.3.1.1.1. To date, however, one of the most commonly used plastic slipliners is solid wall HDPE. The sections of this pipe are most typically "joined" via a fusion welding machine which results in a continuous pipe structure with no change in inside or outside dimension at the locations where pipe segments are fused. Butt fusion procedures for solid wall HDPE are described in Appendix A.

Also to be considered in specifying the type of pipe, and its attendant type of joint, is the likely method of insertion of the liner into the host pipe being rehabilitated. Most plastic joints used in sliplining applications have little to no ability to resist tensile forces. As such, they must be pushed, or jacked through the pipe being rehabilitated. Only fusion welded joints and some of the types with routed ends with overlapping tabs will allow a combination of pushing and pulling the liner through the host pipe. The need to also be able to pull as well as push can be important where very long (or heavy) segments are being inserted, or where deflections, discontinuities or angle points in the host pipe increase the force needed to bring the liner into place.

6.1.3.1.1.6 Installation

Prior to insertion of the liner pipe, the existing culvert must be cleaned of all debris either by flushing or manual removal. Any rust or spalls must be cleaned and removed as well as protrusions into the pipe.

A jacking pit must be constructed with adequate size to contain lengths of pipe to be inserted, grouting equipment and any other equipment necessary to perform the insertion. The liner is normally pushed into the existing culvert, but occasionally it is pulled, or a combination of pulling and pushing is used. Due to the often-large pressure load needed to push the last sections of a long or heavy liner into place, pulling may be the preferred method as long as adequate provisions have been made to avoid joint separation.

“Pull” Insertion Technique**“Push” Insertion Technique**

The difficulty encountered in inserting the liner will be primarily dependent upon the roughness of the existing culvert (either corrugations, other protrusions, or minor displacements) and the type of exterior on the liner. Corrugated or ribbed liners will be the most difficult to insert, particularly if the existing culvert is also corrugated, corroded, and/or distorted.

6.1.3.1.1.7 Other Considerations

1. For any plastic slipliner, if the liner diameter exceeds 1500 mm, headquarters approval will be required. See Index 7.1.6.1.
2. PVC pipe as typically manufactured will become brittle and experience a significant reduction in impact resistance due to freezing temperatures and/or long-term exposure to ultra-violet radiation. Therefore, ends of completed installations should not be exposed if they would be subject to very low temperatures or direct sunlight. Temperature considerations are only important if the pipe is likely to be handled or impacted (falling rocks/debris or maintenance equipment) during periods of low temperatures.
3. Ribbed PVC must be protected from rib cracking/breaking during handling and installation. This may be of particular concern if skids or other devices are not used to help slide the liner into place in an existing corrugated culvert.
4. Design discharge for the liner must be evaluated with consideration of conditions that may have changed since the original culvert was placed. It is incorrect to assume that if a liner will pass the discharge for which the existing culvert was designed that all design requirements have been met.
5. The nominal pipe diameters given in the tables in Index 6.1.3.1.1.3 reflect nominal metric designations for current round pipe sizes that have been converted to the metric system at the rate of 25 mm per inch. In the future, it

is possible that manufacturers will make pipes in sizes that more closely correspond to the nominal diameter in order to save on material costs and still meet AASHTO and ASTM specifications. It is imperative that designers use the most current information available from manufacturers when specifying products in order to know the exact dimensions of pipe products that will be delivered to the job site.

6.1.3.2 Lining with Cured-In-Place Pipes

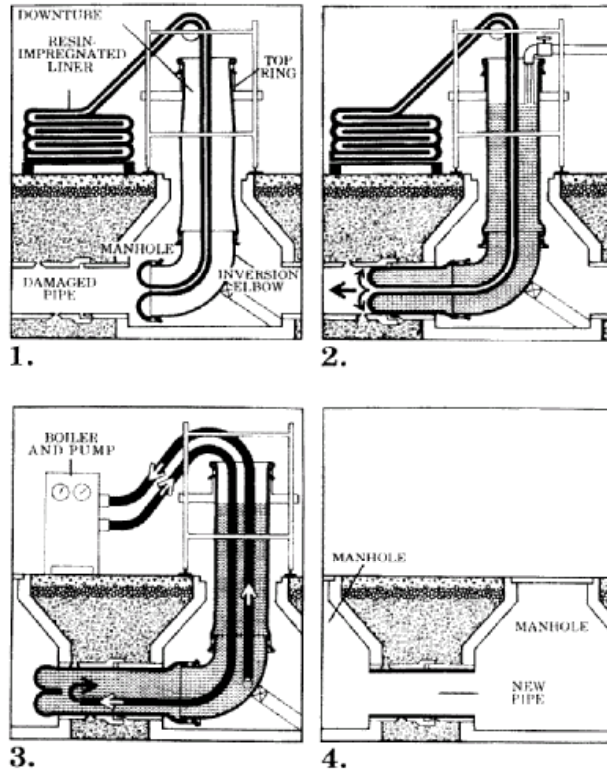
Cured-in-place-pipe (CIPP) is a method of complete culvert relining employing a thermosetting, resin-impregnated flexible tube either;

- a) Inverted in place using water or compressed air, or
- b) Pulled in place with a winch.

The lining does not come in standard sizes, but is designed specifically for the individual pipeline to be rehabilitated, with variable diameters/shapes (i.e., round, elliptical, oval, etc.) and wall thickness. When necessary, the thickness of the liner can be increased to provide additional service life for abrasive conditions. Contact manufacturer for thicknesses available. No grouting is required, and there is no annular space between the host pipe and liner. The most common application of this method is in small diameter (less than 1200 mm) storm drain and sanitary sewers, although larger sizes have been successfully rehabilitated. Concrete culverts subject to sulfate attack are especially good candidates for this repair method or metal pipes where the reduction in diameter using other lining methods is not acceptable. CIPP is quite resistant to abrasion from bedload with small particle sizes.

For the pulled in place installation method, a winched cable is placed inside the existing pipe. The resin-impregnated liner is connected to the free end of the cable and then pulled into place between drainage structures or culvert ends. The cable is disconnected, the ends are plugged and the liner is inflated and cured with hot water or steam.

For the inversion process, manufacturers use a number of different systems to insert the tube. This method generally consists of inserting a polyester felt tube, saturated with a liquid thermosetting resin material, into the culvert. The tube is inserted inside out (inverted) and filled with water or compressed air. During inversion the lining tube turns inside out and travels down the pipeline resulting in the plastic outer sleeve surface becoming the inner surface of the repaired pipe with the resin system being in contact with the pipeline. Pressure inside the inverted tube, due to the water or compressed air, presses the resin-impregnated tube against the carrier pipe wall. Once the tube has reached the far end of the pipe section under repair, either heated water or steam is fed into the inverted tube to cure the thermosetting resin.



Typical inversion tube insertion process.



Inserting polyester felt tube, saturated with a liquid thermosetting resin material, into manhole

If water is used for curing, it must be heated continually and circulated during the curing process. The application of heat hardens the resin after a few hours, forming a jointless pipe-within-a-pipe. Once set, remote controlled cutters are used to reinstate junctions and laterals. Any stream flow must be diverted during construction. Additionally a water source to fill the tube must be accessible to the site.

The maximum length of pipe run that can be rehabilitated in this manner will vary with diameter, but over 100 meters is not uncommon. Due to potential environmental concerns

including the capture and disposal of hot and possibly styrene-contaminated process water, using this lining method with heated water for curing should generally be limited to urban drainage systems that discharge to treatment plants, otherwise all residual water will need to be captured for proper disposal.



Large boiler on site to heat the water

When curing using steam the pros and cons will be similar to water cure except for a slightly increased cure time and much less water to dispose of.

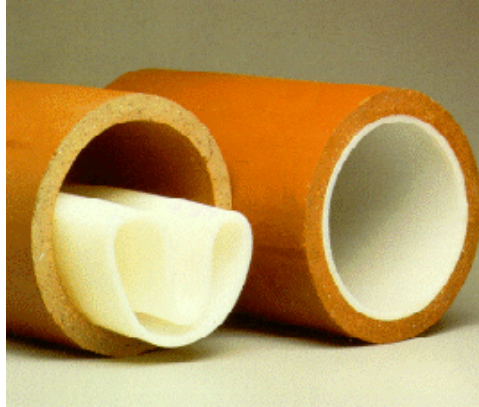
Site set up is a high proportion of costs on small projects. The site footprint is relatively large compared with some lining methods, but it is also somewhat flexible. In general, trained personnel with specialized equipment are required. When lining metal culverts with bituminous coatings containing high sulfur grades, there may be a problem with the resins used for CIPP; to find out what the sulfur grade is, take a bottle/jar of styrene or polyester and brush some onto the bituminous coating. If the black comes off on the brush, it probably has a high sulfur grade. Then it is recommended to:

- Perform further lab tests if needed
- Specify using a pre-liner or
- specify an epoxy resin (which may be expensive)

6.1.3.3 Lining with Folded and Re-Formed PVC Liner (Fold and Form)

This method (per ASTM F 1504) involves the insertion of a continuously extruded, folded PVC pipe into the existing pipeline or conduit and the reformation of the pipe to conform to the shape of the existing pipeline or conduit without excavation. Although this method may be capable of expanding in diameter by up to 10 percent, it is primarily limited to a maximum nominal diameter of 375 mm and therefore non-applicable to most Caltrans applications. In order to allow the deforming and reforming process to take place

without damaging the liner, it is manufactured from PVC compounds that are modified from those used in standard ribbed PVC pipe or other PVC pipes used for direct burial. At present, there is no definitive information available on the long-term durability or abrasion resistant properties of PVC compounds of this type.



Fold and Form PVC Liner

6.1.3.4 Lining with Deformed-Reformed HDPE Liner

The HDPE method currently being marketed uses HDPE solid wall pipe with a Standard Dimension Ratios (SDR – pipe diameter/wall thickness ratio) of 35, 32.5, 26 and 21, which is adequately flexible to be folded for insertion into existing pipes. Lengths of individual pipe runs that can be rehabilitated by this method vary depending on pipe diameter – larger diameters require sections that need to be butt-fused together on site.

If the nominal diameter of the liner is 450 mm or smaller, it is delivered to the jobsite in a folded form on a spool. Larger diameters are brought to the jobsite in individual sections and then butt-fused and deformed on site by means of thermo-mechanical deforming equipment into a “U” shape (see pictures below).



On-site mechanical deforming equipment required for large diameter HDPE liner.

This technique is generally applicable to rehabilitating pipes of 450 mm diameter or less. However, Caltrans has recently been testing this method with pipe sizes up to 750 mm.

After the liner is pulled through the pipe to be rehabilitated, heat is introduced into the folded liner using pressurized steam to force it out to shape. A remote controlled cutter reconnects connections and laterals without excavation.

The advantages of this method compared to sliplining include, no joints, no grouting and insignificant annular space thus providing increased hydraulic capacity if the reduction in diameter was a concern.



Smaller diameter liner (450 mm) being installed through a drainage inlet from a spool

The main limitations of this method are that the range of available pipe diameters is limited and this method cannot accommodate oval or odd shapes of the old pipe, diameter variations, possible joint settlement and pipe bends for liners over 450 mm in diameter. Smaller diameter liner (450 mm) is delivered to the job site on a spool and has a significantly improved bending radius than the larger diameters that may require digging a jacking pit (see picture below).



Steam being introduced into 750 mm HDPE liner

6.1.3.5 Lining with Machine Wound PVC Liner

This method involves the insertion of a machine made field fabricated spiral wound PVC liner pipe into an existing pipe (either flexible or rigid). After insertion, the spiral wound PVC liner pipe is either:

- a) Inserted at a fixed diameter and then expanded until it presses against the interior surface of the existing pipe; or,
- b) Inserted at a fixed diameter into the existing pipe and is not expanded, and the annular space between the spiral wound PVC liner pipe is grouted; or,
- c) Wound against the host pipe walls by a machine that travels down the pipe.

There are currently two manufacturers using this process. One manufacturer offers three systems:

- 1) An expanding system, limited to host pipes ranging from 150 mm to 750 mm in diameter
- 2) A fixed diameter system for host pipes ranging from 375 mm to 2750 mm in diameter
- 3) A full bore, traveling machine system for host pipes ranging from 750 mm to 2750 mm in diameter.

The other manufacturer offers two systems:

- 1) A fixed diameter system, machine applied, for host pipes ranging from 600mm to 900 mm
- 2) A human-entry, fixed diameter manual application system for host pipes ranging from 1050 mm to 2500 mm

Note that, as with any plastic liner or slipliner, if the liner diameter of any of the above systems exceeds 1500 mm, headquarters approval will be required. See Index 7.1.6.1.

The expanding system consists of a continuous plastic strip that is spirally wound into the existing deteriorated host pipe. The male and female edges of the strip are securely locked together via the winding machine. Once a section is installed, it is expanded against the wall of the host pipe, creating a watertight seal. Both flexible and rigid pipes can be rehabilitated with this system. This lining system is similar to the fixed diameter process except that the continuous spiral joint utilizes a water activated polyurethane adhesive for sealing, no annular space grouting is required (but the pipe ends are usually grouted) and the range of diameters given above is for smaller non-human entry pipes.



Expandable profile lining system example shown above

The fixed diameter machine spiral wound liner process produces a renovated pipe, which is a layered composite of PVC Liner (using ribbed PVC strips 200 to 300 mm wide that are supplied in 100 meter coils), cementitious grout, and the original pipe. The combination of the ribbed profile on the PVC liner and the grout produces an integrated structure with the PVC liner "tied" to the original pipe through the grout similar to a slipliner. Unlike the expanding system, after insertion, the annular space between the liner and the existing pipe is filled with grout as described in Indices 6.1.3.1 and 6.1.3.1.1.4. The composite structure also may provide a watertight system.



Rib Loc RibsteelTM lining system shown above

There are variations to PVC profiles that are used by the different manufacturers for the fixed diameter machine spiral wound liner process. One manufacturer uses a lining system that is capable of being steel reinforced. This steel reinforced PVC lining system may be used for larger diameters than the expanding system, namely 525 mm to

2700 mm (21" to 108") however, as with any plastic liner or slipliner, if the liner diameter exceeds 1500 mm, headquarters approval will be required. See Index 7.1.6.1. For many smaller applications the steel reinforcing is not required as the plastic strip has sufficient stiffness to withstand the grouting pressure. The steel reinforced PVC lining system consists of a continuous plastic strip, which is spirally wound directly into the existing deteriorated host pipe at fixed diameter. The male and female edges of the strip are securely locked together via the winding machine. The plastic strip is designed with ribs on its outer surface to engage a continuous strip of profiled reinforcing steel, which is added to the outside of the plastic pipe when specified. The resulting liner has a smooth plastic internal surface with increased stiffness from the steel reinforcing profile. The liner is annular space grouted as described in Indices 6.1.3.1 and 6.1.3.1.1.4. A watertight seal is achieved through sealing elements pre-applied to the male and female edges of the profile during manufacture.

The full bore, traveling machine system consists of a continuous plastic strip that is spirally wound into the existing deteriorated host pipe, with the option of a steel reinforcing section for increased load carrying capacity, by a machine that rotates and lays the profile against the host pipe walls as the machine traverses the host pipe. The male and female edges of the strip are securely locked together via the winding machine. The plastic strip is designed with ribs on its outer surface to engage a continuous strip of profiled reinforcing steel, which is added to the outside of the plastic pipe when specified. For many smaller applications the steel reinforcing is not required as the plastic strip has sufficient stiffness to withstand the grouting pressure. The resulting liner has a smooth plastic internal surface with increased stiffness from the steel reinforcing profile (if specified).



Full bore, traveling machine system: Rib Loc Rotaloc™ lining system shown above.

The annular space grouting procedure is described in Indices 6.1.3.1 and 6.1.3.1.4. A watertight seal is achieved through sealing elements pre-applied to the male and female edges of the profile during manufacture.

PVC liners are not recommended in conditions with combinations of impact abrasion and freezing temperatures where the pipe liner may become brittle and crack. PVC also may experience greater abrasive wear in an acidic environment than HDPE. See Index 2.1.2.3.

6.1.3.6 Sprayed Coatings

Sprayed lining systems can be used to repair drainage structures or to form a continuous lining within an existing pipe. Lining materials may include concrete, concrete sealers, silicone, vinyl ester, and polyurethane. The primary goals of the non-cementitious systems are improved corrosion resistance for concrete structures.

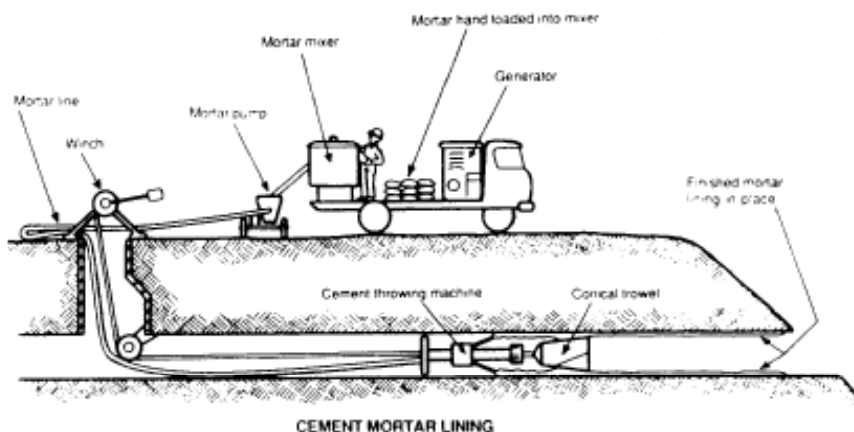
The application of any coating or lining requires correct surface preparation and cleaning in advance of application.

6.1.3.6.1 Air Placed Concrete and Epoxy or Polyurethane Lining for Drainage Structures

Placing a spray-applied Polyurethane protective lining on air-placed concrete is an effective method to rehabilitate concrete inlets and manholes; after the concrete has cured, a thin layer of moisture tolerant epoxy primer is applied by spray, followed by a thicker outer layer of polyurethane lining material.

Epoxies can also be used alone or as a topcoat to a cementitious product to provide a chemical barrier.

6.1.3.6.2 Cement Mortar Lining



This alternative may be used to line corroded corrugated steel pipes ranging from small diameter (300 mm) to a maximum of 7 m diameter. Prior to performing this technique, any voids around the pipe must first be pressure grouted as described Index 6.1.2. In addition to being an effective invert lining method, this method will also create a zone of alkalinity for the entire circumference of the pipe. Corrosion Engineers maintain that the cement in concrete prevents or significantly retards the oxidation of the interior base metal (rust). Construction thickness of between 3 mm and 19 mm per pass are attainable.

Typically, two passes are made resulting in a 13 mm minimum thickness over the leading edges of the corrugation pattern.

Any grade (steepness) of pipe can be lined by this method and most bends do not present a problem. A polypropylene fiber mesh reinforcement additive will provide improvements in the strain capacity, toughness, impact resistance, and crack control, however, it is not a substitute to Caltrans host pipe philosophy outlined in Index 6.1.1 which must be adhered to. The mortar is made of one part cement, to one part sand. As with other liners, the pipes must first be thoroughly cleaned and dried. For diameters between 300 and 600 mm, the cement mortar is applied by robot. The mortar is pumped to a head, which rotates at high speed using centrifugal force to place the mortar on the walls. A conical-shaped trowel attached to the end of the machine is used to smooth the walls. The maximum recommended length of small-diameter pipe that can be lined using this method is approximately 200 m. Although this method will line larger diameter pipes, 600 to 3600 mm, it is mostly appropriate for non-human entry pipes. Larger diameter metal pipes will generally only require invert lining. See Index 5.1.2.2.1. Also available is a reinforced cement mortar lining process, in which the cement-mortar lining encases a helically applied steel-reinforcing rod. Rod size can range from 5 mm to 10 mm, spaced from 13 mm to 150 mm apart.

6.1.3.7 Man-Entry Lining with Pipe Segments



For the rehabilitation of large (1050 mm and larger) diameter storm drain systems, segmental liners can be manufactured in virtually any shape and length from a number of different types of materials, discussed below. The installation process is very labor intensive, largely due to the joining and grouting. These liners can be installed in single, short, circumferential sheets joined together longitudinally, or in multiple segments (usually invert and crown sections joined together longitudinally and circumferentially). The joints may be tongue and groove. Additional joint protection can be provided by the application of resin-based sealants following the installation of the units. This work generally needs to be accomplished in dry conditions; therefore, bypassing of flow may be required. Segmental liners can be installed with or without annular space grouting

which is usually incorporated with mortar placement (shotcrete) or by pressure grouting applied after installation.

6.1.3.7.1 Fiberglass Reinforced Cement (FRC) Liners

Fiberglass reinforced cement (FRC) liners are prefabricated thin panels designed for large diameter (1050 mm and larger) and odd shaped pipes. After the existing pipeline is thoroughly cleaned and dewatered the segments are provided in 1.2 m to 2.4 m (4 to 8 foot) lengths, which overlap at each end. The segment ends may be pre-drilled to accommodate screws or impact nails. The segmented rings are anchored on spacers and, upon final assembly; the section(s) are cement pressure grouted in the annulus provided. Laterals are cut in and grouted.

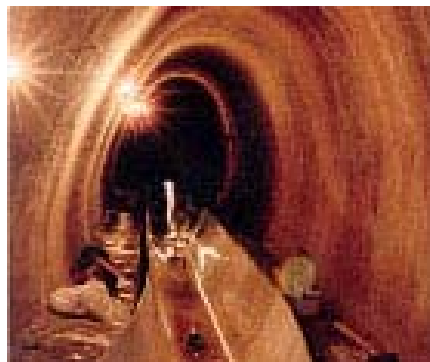
This method provides flexibility to be made specially to fit any portion (e.g., invert only), shape or size of host pipe and to accommodate variations in grade, slopes, cross-sections and deterioration. The linings are not designed to support earth loads, therefore, the host pipe must be structurally sound. Although the segmented sections are lightweight and easy to handle, the installation is labor intensive and slow.

The FRC liners are normally 10 mm (three eighth inches) thick, but can vary. They are composed of Portland cement, fine sand and chopped, fiberglass rovings. They have high mechanical and impact strengths and also a high strength to weight ratio. FRC is more abrasion resistant than the concrete mix used in standard reinforced concrete pipe (RCP), however, their thickness is significantly less than the cover over the reinforcing steel in RCP. See Index 2.1.1.1.3.3.

6.1.3.7.2 Fiberglass Reinforced Plastic (FRP) Liners



Irregular shape examples using FRP



Invert lining with FRP

Fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP) liners are similar in most respects to FRC liners, however, they are lighter weight and more resistant to chemical attack (e.g. sulfate) and therefore provide a better corrosion barrier (when used to line steel pipes) than FRC liners. They are also highly abrasion resistant with negligible absorption and permeability.

The FRP liners are normally 13 mm (half inch) thick, but can vary. They are composed of thermosetting plastic resin (polyester or vinylester) and chopped, fiberglass rovings and mostly constructed with the same materials that are used to make fiber-reinforced polymer concrete. See Indices 2.1.1.1.3.1 and 2.1.1.1.3.5. However, however, a sand free inner surface made of pure resin is provided for resistance to chemical attack and abrasion resistance. The fiberglass inner surface has a finish that is compatible with the type of resin employed. The outer surface is treated with bonded inert sand aggregate to enhance the adhesion to the annular space grout.

Channeline Sewer Systems (North America) Inc. offers a range of FRP segments up to 4.6 m (15 feet) in diameter available in any shape or size.



Existing multi-plate arch before lining



After lining with FRP

6.1.3.8 Other Techniques

The following techniques are described elsewhere in this D.I.B. under the various referenced indices and are included the table of alternative repair techniques in Index 8.1.1:

- 5.1.1.1.3.1 Internal chemical grouting
- 5.1.1.1.3.2 Internal joint sealing systems and repair sleeves
- 6.1.2 Grouting voids in soil envelope
- 5.1.1.2 & 5.1.1.2.1 Crack repairs
- 5.1.2.2.1 & 5.1.2.2.2 Invert paving
- 5.1.2.2.3 Steel armor plating

7.1 Influencing Factors

7.1.1 Hydrology

Urbanization is the most dominant factor in modifying the calculated runoff of a watershed. Other factors include logging and cultivation, hydraulic roughness (natural and man-made channels), and updated climatic data. All of these factors should be reviewed for changes and accounted for when replacing or rehabilitating a culvert. Refer to Topics 803 and 812 through 815 in the HDM and FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-1 and 2-2 for factors affecting runoff, and for Departmental procedures for upgrading existing drainage facilities.

7.1.2 Hydraulics

Debris, if allowed to accumulate either within a culvert or at its entrance, can adversely affect the hydraulic performance of the facility. Refer to Index 813.8, and Topic 822 in the HDM for a discussion on Debris Control and Bulking. Vegetation, if allowed to accumulate at the downstream end of a culvert will raise the tail water. If the culvert is operating under inlet control, it may be better not to remove the vegetation since it will not significantly affect the capacity and may serve to create a lower outlet velocity. Under inlet control, the cross sectional area of the culvert, inlet geometry and elevation of the headwater at the entrance are of primary importance. However, even though the roughness of the culvert barrel has minimal impact to the headwater elevation, increasing the roughness will serve to reduce velocity. On the other hand, if the culvert is operating under outlet control, the vegetation may need to be removed since it resists flow to the point of affecting the culvert capacity. Other factors affecting tail water include backwater in the vicinity of a confluence downstream, and tidal influences. At these locations, aggradation or deposited sediments may lessen channel and culvert capacity and increase headwater depth and flood heights. Outlet control involves the additional consideration of tail water elevation, and the slope, roughness and length of the culvert barrel. These two types of control are important hydraulic concepts to be considered when choosing the type of lining method or impacting entrance and/or exit conditions. Refer to Index 825.2 in the HDM and FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 2-3 to 2-6 for a discussion on Culvert Flow. Outlet velocity is another factor to be considered when relining or changing the roughness of the culvert barrel. Refer to Topic 827 in the HDM for a discussion on Outlet Design.

7.1.3 Safety

Refer to Index 829.8 in the HDM for a discussion on safety for jacking and tunneling and tunnel classifications in relation to potential flammable gas or vapor. Refer to Topic 309.1 in the HDM for a discussion on horizontal clearances (e.g. existing headwall and end wall location on rural 2-lane highways). Other safety considerations will be dependent on the scope of the rehabilitation and ADT of the highway. For example, using a trenchless technology method to replace a culvert may result in a reduced number of construction related traffic accidents. Workers are less exposed to traffic and there is

usually less disruption to traffic. In addition, there are fewer (but more specialized) workers needed for most trenchless technology jobs that should enhance overall project safety. Consideration should always be made for safety to the traveling public when considering the ability of a deteriorated pipe to support roadway and traffic loads. See Index 11.1.1.

7.1.4 Environmental

Repair, rehabilitation, or retrofit projects must be developed that will balance biological, engineering, and hydraulic considerations. Examples of this may include but not limited to;

- a) Water quality considerations for compaction grouting where groundwater may be present.
- b) Omission of certain pipe lining methods (such as water heated cured in place) in biologically sensitive areas where construction residue may contaminate the stream with styrene residue. Also, stream flow will be interrupted during installation of many rehabilitation/replacement techniques.
- c) Chemical grouting to stop infiltration at deteriorated, leaking or open joints in small diameter (600 mm or less) pipes. The most commonly used gel grouts for this are of the acrylamide, acrylic, acrylate and urethane base types. Acrylamide base gel is significantly more toxic than the others. Grout toxicities are of concern only during handling and placement or installation, however, EPA has now withdrawn a long-standing proposal that sought to ban the use of acrylamide grouts.

The modification of an existing culvert to facilitate the movement of fish to spawn can introduce several problems in the operation of an installation. Culverts are generally designed to operate under inlet control, which can be detrimental to fish passage. See the picture below for an example where the outlet scour hole created a jump too high for fish passage.



If a culvert is modified to operate under outlet control, or modifications are made to the barrel, there may be a decrease in efficiency, and related increase in water depth and sedimentation. Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, pages 3-58 to 3-61, 5-39 to 5-50 and Volume 2, Appendix B-23, for a discussion on Fish Passage and Fish Passage Devices. Most recently, the California Department of Fish and Game and NOAA Fisheries have each published guidelines on fish passage. Refer to the DRAFT Culvert Criteria for Fish Passage and the Guidelines for Salmonid Passage at Stream Crossings by these agencies.

7.1.5 Host Pipe Dimensions and Irregularities

When using “tight fitting” rehabilitation methods (i.e., no annular space between the host pipe and the liner, e.g., cured in place or deformed/reformed HDPE) in small diameter host pipes, it is essential to inspect the existing pipe by physically entering the pipe or with a remote controlled camera. See Index 3.1.1. It may also be necessary prior to construction to verify dimensions and remove protrusions with the use of a proofing pig. A pig is a bullet shaped device made of hard rubber or similar material that is pulled through the host pipe. This technique has low mobilization costs and low to moderate overall costs.

7.1.6 Coordination with Headquarters

7.1.6.1 Headquarters Approval for Large Diameter Plastic Liners

Although plastic pipe sizes in excess of 1500 mm are available (not in all styles), any re-lining project that proposes to utilize such large diameters should be treated as a special design and consultation with the Headquarters Office of Highway Drainage Design within the Division of Design and the Underground Structures unit in the Division of Structures within the Division of Engineering Services (DES) is advised. For any plastic liner or slipliner, if the diameter exceeds 1500 mm, headquarters approval will be required.

7.1.6.2 Headquarters Assistance/Approval for Pipe Replacement using TEC Methods

It is strongly advised to contact the above-referenced headquarters units along with the Headquarters Office of Permits and Geotechnical Design within the Division of Engineering Services (DES) for assistance when considering replacement using the trenchless construction (TEC) methods that are referenced in Index 9.1.2.2. Many of the TEC methods and pipe materials will need Headquarters approval by the Office of Highway Drainage Design

8.1 Guidelines for Comparison of Alternative Rehabilitation Techniques

8.1.1 Table of Alternative Repair Techniques

Following problem identification, the Engineer must determine which of the multiple potential options for rehabilitation should be selected. There is no specific methodology

for making this determination, and in many cases several repair options will be viable. In all cases, the key element is to first understand the conditions leading to the failure/deterioration of the existing pipe. Unless there have been significant changes in the upstream watershed, these conditions will likely persist and the selected repair strategy must be able to effectively counteract these conditions.

The table on the following page(s) was developed as a general guide. Individual techniques, different fabricators, different chemical formulations, varying geotechnical conditions, condition of the host conduit, and installation techniques and procedures all are influential in the ultimate outcome of the repair technique. When designing and installing any of the various techniques, it is recommended that contact be made with suppliers, fabricators, or specialists to clearly ascertain the probability of success. Ultimately, only experience in varying situations and conditions will tell accurately what methods have the best potential for meeting the design objectives. Caltrans continues to evaluate most of the possible repair methods with the ultimate objective of developing design and installation specifications. Refer to Index 10.1 for a discussion on Caltrans New Product Approval process and Construction- Evaluated Experimental Feature Program

The following references provide some additional guidelines for comparison of alternative techniques:

FHWA Culvert Restoration Techniques Report No. FHWA/CA/TL-93-14, Part I (7)
“Guidelines for Comparison of Alternative Techniques.”

FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 6, pages 6-3 and 6-4 and Chapter 7, page 7-24.

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
Sliplining with continuous or discrete pipe lengths HDPE, PVC, CSP, RCP, RPMP PRC, FRC	Med.	450 mm – 3000 mm	<p>Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration.</p> <p>Quick insertion; simple method requiring minimal investment in installation equipment and relatively little technical skill. Multiple materials. Provides a virtually new culvert comparable to replacement. Continuous HDPE pipe has very few joints and is capable of accommodating large radius bends. Large range of diameters can be repaired depending on material used. Speciality liners are available in short lengths and constant O.D. (no bell or coupler)</p>	<p>Need fairly large area for liner insertion/jacking pit Reduces cross section area because the annular space between the old and the new pipe must be grouted which may reduce hydraulic capacity. May increase velocity of flow. The environmental concern with this technique is the control of the low-density grout. Labor intensive jointing for fusion welded HDPE Difficult to reconnect laterals</p> <p>HQ approval needed for plastic liners exceeding 1500 mm</p>
Fold and Form PVC	Med. to High	≤ 375 mm	<p>Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration.</p> <p>Smaller construction footprint than sliplining Easy to transport and handle. Viable technique for storm drains and culverts in non-abrasive urban settings. No annular space grouting required. Capacity maximized</p>	<p>PVC may become brittle in freezing temperatures.</p> <p>Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed.</p> <p>Very limited sizes; little or no use for most projects. Cannot accommodate diameter variations and joint settlement.</p> <p>Only circular shapes possible.</p>

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
<p>Cured in Place Pipe (CIPP)</p> <p>Polyester Resins</p>	High	< 2400 mm	<p>Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration.</p> <p>No annular space grouting required. Very smooth interior surface may improve hydraulic-capacity. Capacity maximized. Non-circular shapes can be accommodated. No jacking pit required. Eliminates pipe joints/seams and bridges all joints and irregularities on the interior surface of the host pipe.</p> <p>Easy to transport and handle.</p> <p>Good technique for storm drains; can access through MH or DI and can accommodate variations in cross section, minor pipe deformations and bends of up to 90 degrees.</p>	<p>Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed.</p> <p>Site setup high proportion of cost on smaller projects.</p> <p>Environmental concerns for disposal of waste water: Water must be recaptured and trucked off site to a prearranged disposal site.</p> <p>Groundwater infiltration may need to be controlled.</p> <p>Lateral connections are easily handled but may require sealing after they have been cut.</p> <p>HQ approval needed for CIPP exceeding 1500 mm</p>
External Grouting voids (Index 6.1.2)	Low	All sizes	<p>Voids behind culvert</p> <p>Prevents further distortion or collapse of culvert by re-establishing soil-pipe interaction.</p>	Difficult to judge completeness of repair
Crack Sealing (RCP) Mortar/Epoxy	Low	> 900 mm	<p>Cracks in RCP</p> <p>Low resource commitment. Protects reinforcing.</p>	<p>May be only a cosmetic repair if basic cause of the cracking is not determined and treated. Requires human entry.</p>

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
Invert Paving PCC	Med.	> 900 mm	Invert Repair for Concrete and Metal Pipe High strength concrete and/or hard aggregate provides abrasion resistance. Can easily modify thickness to meet needs. Limited to bottom third of pipe Simple method requiring minimal investment in installation equipment and relatively little technical skill. If invert perforation is present, same equipment can be used for invert paving.	Cement is subject to break down if runoff is acidic and concrete mix design is not modified. May be difficult to attach wire mesh/reinforcement.
Internal Joint Sealing Steel Expansion Rings and rubber gaskets	Low	375 mm – 5280 mm	Infiltration/Exfiltration at Joints Low resource commitment. Prevents further deterioration due to infiltration or exfiltration and loss of backfill.	More applicable to RCP than flexible pipe. If used on CMP or plastic, pipe must not be deflected beyond 10%. Generally, pipe must be large enough for human entry.
Deform Re-form HDPE	Med. to High	≤ 450 mm (Larger diam. Being evaluated)	Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration. Smaller construction footprint than sliplining. Easy to transport and handle. Viable technique for storm drains and culverts. No annular space grouting required. Capacity maximized	May be difficult to reform larger diameters with thick walls. Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed. Only circular shapes possible. Cannot accommodate diameter variations and joint settlement. Range of available pipe diameters is limited.

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
Machine Spiral Wound PVC	High	<2740 mm ≤ 750 mm for radially expanded method)	<p>Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration.</p> <p>Smaller construction footprint than sliplining and other methods because liner is formed on site and no pipe storage is necessary. Easy to transport and handle. Viable technique for storm drains and most culverts. Can access through MH or DI Annular space grouting not needed for radially expanded method. Large range of diameters can be selected within the range of the winding machine.</p>	<p>May become brittle upon freezing. Continuous interlocking joint system can be problematic if the host pipe diameter fluctuates. Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed. Reduction in hydraulic capacity can be significant for smaller diameter host pipes. Annular space grouting required for some spiral wound methods. HQ approval needed for plastic liners exceeding 1500 mm.</p>
Air placed concrete and Sprayed epoxy or polyurethane lining	High	N/A	<p>Drainage Structure Rehabilitation</p> <p>Will provide a corrosion barrier to reinforcing steel for concrete drainage inlets and manholes.</p>	<p>Limited to concrete drainage structures</p> <p>Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed.</p>

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
<p>Cement Mortar Lining</p> <p>Cementitious mortar containing acrylic fibers</p>	High	300 mm – 7000 mm	<p>Invert Repair for non-human entry pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration.</p> <p>Cement in concrete prevents or significantly retards the oxidation of the interior base metal (rust) of CSP</p> <p>Can accommodate bends and imperfections in host pipe</p> <p>Large range of diameters can be selected within the range of the centrifugal mortar projecting machines.</p> <p>Smooth interior surface may improve hydraulic characteristics by reducing roughness coefficient.</p> <p>Lateral connections are easily handled</p>	<p>Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed.</p> <p>Cement is subject to break down if runoff is acidic and/or contains sulfates and mix design is not appropriate. See HDM Table 854.1A.</p> <p>Control of infiltration required</p>
<p>Man-entry lining with pipe segments</p> <p>FRP, FRC, HDPE, PVC</p>	High	1050 mm – 5000 mm	<p>Invert Repair for Large Diameter Pipes, Corrosion, Infiltration/Exfiltration</p> <p>Can be manufactured in virtually any shape and length.</p> <p>Lightweight and easy to handle.</p> <p>Option for invert lining only.</p> <p>Sections easily cut to form connections</p>	<p>Installation is labor intensive and slow.</p> <p>Restraint system may be required during grouting.</p> <p>HQ approval needed for plastic liners exceeding 1500 mm.</p> <p>Control of infiltration required</p>

Technique and Materials	Const. Cost	Size Range	Problem Resolution and Advantages	Limitations
Internal Chemical Grouting (joints) Acrylamide gel, polyurethane foam, urethane gel, acrylic gel, and acrylate gel.	High	≤ 600 mm	Infiltration/Exfiltration at Joints Robotic sealing packer used to access small diameter pipes. Can be used to stop severe infiltration prior to other repairs.	20 years or less service life. Quality control difficult. Acrylic gels limited for use in systems under the groundwater table. Success may depend on soil and moisture variability. Formulating the correct mixture may be dependent on trial and error on a case-by-case basis, rather than scientific principals. If conditions change, the grout may shrink. Grouting cannot be used for joints that are severely offset. It is also inappropriate for longitudinal cracks and severe circular cracks. Specialized equipment and trained personnel needed.
Invert steel Armor Plating	High	≥ 600 mm	Invert Repair for Concrete and Metal Pipe Provides abrasion resistance. Can easily modify thickness to meet needs. Limited to bottom third of pipe	Difficult to attach to RCP or plastic. May not be appropriate in highly corrosive environments.
Stainless Steel or PVC Repair Sleeve with expanding polyurethane grout	Low	450 mm – 1350 mm (Stainless Steel) 450 mm – 2740 mm (PVC)	Infiltration at Joints Remote installation for small diameter pipes. Can be used to stop severe infiltration prior to other repairs. Large range of diameters can be repaired. Available in 450 mm, 600 mm and 900 mm individual lengths, which may be connected if needed. Can be used to repair deformed flexible pipe.	Local repairs only

8.1.2 Process Flow Charts

For guidance on the overall process for analyzing problems and solutions in conjunction with the Table of alternative repair techniques that are summarized in Index 8.1.1, see FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 3, Figures 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and Table 3.1 on pages 3-9, 3-10, 3-12 and 3-15:

- Analysis of problems and solutions. Overall process
- Determining the Cause and the Type of Problem
- Process for Analysis of Potential Solutions
- Summary of Information on Alternatives

9.1 Replacement

9.1.1 Repair Verses Replacement

Refer to FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 7, pages 7-27.

Choosing whether to repair or replace the deficient culvert depends upon several considerations:

- The condition of the culvert and its suitability to repair or rehabilitation
- Current and future loading conditions in the area and for the roadway served by the culvert.
- Alignment and other physical factors related to the culvert. Significantly changed (or planned) roadway geometry or embankment depths may indicate a culvert replacement rather than a simple repair. Conversely, for relatively short culverts with smaller diameters under shallow cover on rural highways with low ADT, it may be more cost-effective to replace.
- Ability to conform to current standards.
- Availability of funding, fabrication, construction expertise of local contractors, or construction capabilities of maintenance forces.
- User costs and out-of-service costs during either repair or replacement.
- Environmental demands or aesthetic considerations.

Certainly, the choice between repair and replacement should be based upon a consideration of all of the factors. A simple, arbitrary, and un-researched blanket decision should be avoided. The costs of repair and continued operation versus the costs and ultimate operation of a replacement culvert may be significant and the alternative should be chosen with this significance in mind. A worksheet similar to Table 7.6 in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 7, page 7-27 is suggested as a systematic approach to deciding whether to repair or replace. As previously discussed under the 'Caltrans host pipe structural philosophy' (see Index 6.1.1), if the host pipe is not capable, or being made capable of sustaining design loads, it should be replaced rather than repaired.

9.1.2 Replacement Systems

If the decision has been made that replacement will provide the most satisfactory solution to the problems being encountered at the culvert site, various replacement methods can be considered.

For some large culvert replacements, options may include consideration of bridge construction. However, for most locations replacement will consist of installing a new culvert.

Generally, the culvert replacement will fall under the categories of

- open trench construction, or
- trenchless construction.

9.1.2.1 Open Cut (Trench) Method

The open cut trench method is the most commonly used method for replacing a culvert. The general procedure is to excavate a trench and remove the existing culvert, prepare the appropriate bedding for the new culvert, install the new culvert and fill the trench around the pipe with either slurry/flowable type material or with compacted lifts of soil. The pavement is then patched to reasonable limits beyond the edge of the pipe trench. For detailed guidelines for installing culverts in a trench, see Caltrans Standard Plans A62D, A62DA, A62E, A62F, Sections 19 and 61 through 67 of the Standard Specifications, Chapter 850 of the HDM, and Section 2 of this D.I.B. for physical standards. Also see appropriate Standard Special Provisions (SSP's). Controlled low-strength material (CLSM) is described in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 7, page 7-34 and Slurry Cement backfill is described in Section 19-3.062 of the Standard Specifications. A memo dated 9/27/01 by Caltrans Corrosion Technology Unit recommended allowance of placing both slurry and CLSM as backfills with both aluminum and aluminized (type 2) pipe.

The flow chart under Index 2.1.1 outlines the general thought process and factors involved in determining which type of material to select for replacement using the open cut (trench) method.

9.1.2.2 Trenchless Excavation Construction (TEC) Methods

Trenchless excavation construction (TEC) methods include all methods of installing culverts below grade without direct installation into an open-cut trench. To date, the majority of trenchless work for the department has been accomplished by utility owners through the permit process with the design and construction responsibilities and liability placed on the utility owner. However, for culvert replacement, trenchless excavation is usually a preferred option over open trench construction when very high roadway fills and/or high traffic volumes exist without the availability of a reasonable detour route. No one method is suitable for all types of soil and site conditions. The selection of compatible methods is site specific and highly dependent on subsurface conditions. In addition to adequate specifications and guidelines for contractors to follow, a thorough soils investigation and an accurate underground utility location plan are critical for minimizing subsequent construction problems and claims. At the present time, except for pipe jacking, there are no standard specifications or standard special provisions developed for most of the TEC methods presented herein.

Per Index 7.1.6.2, it is strongly advised to contact the appropriate headquarters units for assistance when considering replacement using the TEC methods that are referenced in this section. The importance of early communication with the Geotechnical Design specialist from the Division of Engineering Services (DES) and coordination with District and/or headquarters Permits cannot be over-emphasized.

However, for major projects involving trenchless technology, depending on complexity, it may be more efficient to use a consultant where in-house expertise is not available for planning and design.

These guidelines go beyond the Encroachment Permit Manual tunneling requirements, which the designer should also be familiar with.

For a description of the various trenchless excavation construction (TEC) techniques, see FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 7, pages 7-38 through 7-45. The following tables were copied with permission from NCHRP Synthesis of Highway Practice 242 (Iseley, T. and S.B. Gokhale): "Trenchless Installation of Conduits Beneath Roadways", Transportation Research Board, National Research Council, Washington, D.C., 1997, and supplement the TEC information given in FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, Chapter 7, pages 7-38 through 7-45:

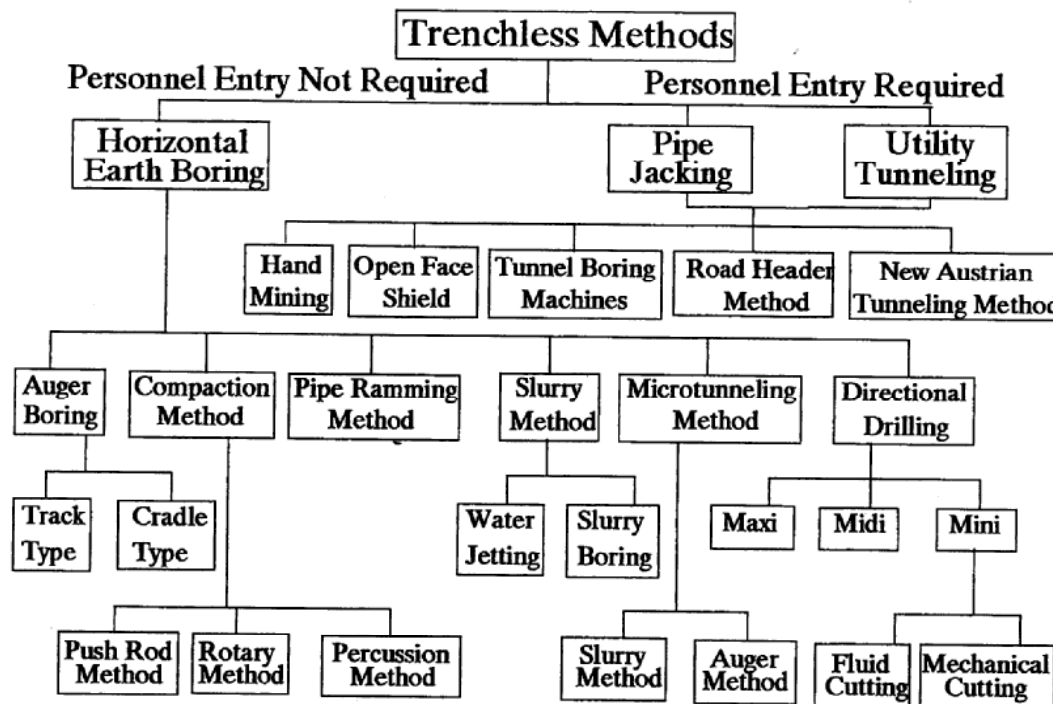


FIGURE 6 Classification systems for trenchless methods.

*New Austrian tunneling method is shotcrete-supported tunneling

DESCRIPTION OF TRENCHLESS CONSTRUCTION METHODS

Method Type	Method Description
I. Techniques Not Requiring Personnel Entry—Horizontal Earth Boring (HEB)	
Auger Boring (AB)	A technique that forms a borehole from a drive shaft to a reception shaft by means of a rotating cutting head. Spoil is transported back to the drive shaft by helical wound auger flights rotating inside of steel casing that is being jacked in place simultaneously. AB may provide limited tracking and steering capability. It does not provide continuous support to the excavation face. AB is typically a 2-stage process (i.e. casing installation and product pipe installation).
Slurry Boring (SB)	A technique that forms a borehole from a drive shaft to a reception shaft by means of a drill bit and drill tubing (stem). A drilling fluid (i.e. bentonite slurry, water, or air pressure) is used to facilitate the drilling process by keeping the drill bit clean and aiding with spoil removal. It is a 2-stage process. Typically, an unsupported horizontal hole is produced in the first stage. The pipe is installed in the second stage.
Microtunneling (MT)	A remotely controlled, guided pipe-jacking process that provides continuous support to the excavation face. The guidance system usually consists of a laser mounted in the drive shaft communicating a reference line to a target mounted inside the MT machine's articulated steering head. The MT process provides ability to control excavation fact stability by applying mechanical or fluid pressure to counterbalance the earth and hydrostatic pressures.
Pipe Ramming (PR)	A technique for installing steel casings from a drive shaft to a reception shaft utilizing the dynamic energy from a percussion hammer attached to the end of the pipe. A continuous casing support is provided and over excavation or water is not required. This is a 2-stage process.
Soil Compaction (SC)	This method consists of several techniques for forming a borehole by in-situ soil displacement using a compacting device. The compacting device is forced through the soil, typically from a drive shaft to a reception shaft, by applying a static thrust force, rotary force and/or dynamic impact energy. The soil along the alignment is simply displaced rather than being removed. This is a 2-stage process.
II. Techniques Requiring Personnel Entry	
Pipe Jacking (PJ)	A pipe is jacked horizontally through the ground from the drive shaft to the reception shaft. People are required inside the pipe to perform the excavation and/or spoil removal. The excavation can be accomplished manually or mechanically.
Utility Tunneling (UT)	A 2-stage process in which a temporary ground support system is constructed to permit the installation of a product pipe. The temporary tunnel liner is installed as the tunnel is constructed. The temporary ground support system can be steel or concrete tunnel liner plates, steel ribs with wood lagging, or an all-wood box culvert. People are required inside the tunnel to perform the excavation and/or spoil removal. The excavation can be accomplished manually or mechanically.

CHARACTERISTICS OF TRENCHLESS CONSTRUCTION METHODS

Type ^a	Pipe/Casing Installation Mode	Suitable ^b Pipe/casing	Soil Excavation Mode	Soil Removal Mode
AB	Jacking	Steel	Mechanical	Auguring
SB	Pulling/Pushing	All types	Mechanical and Hydraulic	Hydraulic, Mechanical Reaming and Compaction
MT	Jacking	Steel, RCP, GFRP, PCP, VCP, DIP	Mechanical	Auguring or Hydraulic (Slurry)
PR	Hammering/Driving	Steel	Mechanical	Auguring, Hydraulic, Compressed Air, or Compaction
SC	Pulling	Steel, PVC, HDPE	Pushing	Displacement (in-situ)
PJ	Jacking	Steel, RCP, GFRP	Manual or Mechanical	Augers, Conveyors, Manual Carts, Power Carts, or Hydraulic
UT	Lining	Steel or Concrete Liner Plates, Ribs w/Wood Lagging, Wood Box	Manual or Mechanical	Augers, Conveyors, Manual Carts, Power Carts, or Hydraulic

^a AB–Auger Boring; SB–Slurry Boring; MT–Microtunneling; PR–Pipe Ramming; SC–Soil Compaction; PJ–Pipe Jacking; UT–Utility Tunneling.

^b Steel–Steel Casing Pipe, RCP–Reinforced Concrete Pipe, GFRP–Glass-Fiber Reinforced Plastic Pipe, PCP–Polymer Concrete Pipe, VCP–Vitrified Clay Pipe, DIP–Ductile Iron Pipe, PVC–Polyvinyl Chloride Pipe, HDPE–High Density Polyethylene Pipe.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE SELECTION AND USE OF TRENCHLESS TECHNOLOGY (TT)

ALTERNATIVES

Factors	Description
Diameter of Drive	Need to identify which methods are suitable to install the pipe required for the drive from project scope. As the diameter increases, the complexity and risks associated with the project also increase. Some methods are unsuitable for some diameters.
Length of Drive	Need to identify which methods are suitable for installing the pipe for the drive lengths required by the project scope. As the length increases, the complexity and risks associated with the project also increases. Length of drive may rule out certain methods or result in cost penalties for mobilization for short distances.
Abandonment	Under what conditions should the work be stopped and the line abandoned. What will be the abandonment procedures?

FACTORS AFFECTING THE SELECTION AND USE OF TRENCHLESS TECHNOLOGY (TT)
ALTERNATIVES - CONTINUED

Factors	Description
Existing Underground Utilities	Need to determine location of all existing underground utilities and underground structures so that the likelihood of obstruction or damage can be addressed for each TT alternative. Actions need to avoid obstruction should be identified for each prospective method.
Existing Above Ground Structures	The likelihood of ground movement caused by the proposed TT alternatives should be evaluated. A possibility of heaving the roadway or causing ground subsidence should be evaluated. The parameters to be monitored to ensure minimum effect on adjoining structures must be identified.
Obstructions	The likelihood of encountering obstructions (either naturally occurring or manmade) should be evaluated. The proposed equipment must be able to handle the anticipated obstruction. For example, some techniques might permit steering around or crushing obstacles up to a certain size.
Casing	Is a casing pipe required? Or can a product pipe be installed directly? If a casing pipe is required, does the annular space between the product pipe and the casing pipes need to be filled? If so, with what materials? Does the casing pipe need to have internal and/or external coatings? What distance should the casing extend beyond the pavement edge?
Soil Conditions	Need to accurately determine the actual soil conditions at the site. Is the proposed TT equipment compatible with the anticipated soil conditions? Where is the water table? Can the equipment function in unstable ground conditions? Or, will the soil conditions need to be stabilized prior to the trenchless process being employed? If so, how? For example, will the soil need to be dewatered? Is dewatering reasonable at the specified project site? Are contaminated soils or groundwater anticipated? What is the likelihood of ground heaving or settlement? Need to establish allowable limits for ground movement and need to determine how ground movement will be measured.
Drive/Reception Shafts	Need to make sure adequate space is available at the project site to provide the required space for the shafts. The working room available may limit the length of pipe segments that can be handled. For example, 12 m (40 ft) steel pipe segments will minimize field-welding time and may be desirable from a construction perspective, but may not be achievable due to site constraints. These constraints need to be identified early in the process.
Accuracy	Need to determine alignment and grade tolerance desired for the installation. Typically, the tighter the tolerance, the higher the cost of installation will be. How will this level of accuracy be measured?
Steerability	What level of sophistication is needed to track the leading edge of the cutting head and being able to steer it? If the system gets off line and grade, what limits need to be placed on corrections to prevent overstressing the drill stem or pipe.
Bulkheads	Bulkheads are used to provide end seals between the casing and product pipe. Need to determine if they should be required. If so, what should they be made of?
Materials	Need to determine what materials the casing and product pipe should be (i.e., Steel, RCP, PVC, GFRP, HDPE, etc.) and joint requirements. Selection must be based on use, environmental conditions, and compatibility with the trenchless method.
Ventilation/Lighting	Under what conditions will ventilation and/or lighting be required. How will adequate ventilation and/or lighting be determined?
Measurement/Payment	How and who will determine the measurement by which the contractor will be compensated? What are the conditions of payment?
Submittals	What information is going to be required for the contractor to supply? Who will receive the submittal information? What are the qualifications of the reviewers? What are the construction risks and who will accept these risks (contractor or owner)?

OVERVIEW OF TRENCHLESS METHODS

Method	Primary Applications	Range of Applications			Type of Pipe	Accuracy
		Depth	Length	Diameter		
Auger Boring (AB)	Crossings (All types)	Varies	12-150m (40-500 ft)	200-1500 mm (8-60 in)	Steel	Medium
Microtunneling (MT)	Sewer Installations	Varies	25-225+m (80-750+ ft)	250-mm-3+m (10 in-10+ft)	Steel, RCP, Fiberglass, GFRP, DI, VCP, PVC	High
Maxi & Midi Horizontal Directional Drilling	Pressure lines, water, gas, cable	<50 m (160 ft)	120-1800 m (400-6000 ft)	75-1370 mm (3-54 in)	Steel, HDPE	Medium
Mini-Horizontal Directional Drilling (Mini-HDD)	Pressure lines, water, gas, cable	<15 m (50 ft) with walkover system	12-180 m (40-600 ft)	50-350 mm (2-14 in)	Small diameter steel pipe, HDPE, DI, PVC, Copper service lines, cable	Medium
Steerable Impact Moling	Pressure lines	Min. of 12 mm/mm dia (1 ft/in dia)	12-60m (40-200 ft)	50-200 mm (2-8 in)	Any pipe material, cables, service lines	Medium
Non-Steerable Impact Moling	Small diameter services	Min. of 12 mm/mm dia (1 ft/in dia)	12-30 m (40-100 ft)	50-150 mm (2-6 in)	Any pipe material, cables, service lines	Low
Pipe Ramming	Crossings	Varies	12-60 m (40-200 ft)	100-1070 mm (4-42 in)	Steel	Low
Pipe Jacking (PJ)	Sewers, Pressure Lines, Crossings	Varies	No theoretical limit- 490 m (1600 ft) spans achieved	1060-3050 mm (42-120 in)	RCP, Steel, Fiber glass	High
Utility Tunneling	Sewers, Pressure lines, Crossings	Varies	No theoretical limit	≥ 1060 mm (≥ 42 in)	Cold formed steel plates, pre-cast concrete segments	High

OVERVIEW OF TRENCHLESS METHODS (cont.)

Method	Working Space Required	Compatible Soil Type	Operator Skill Requirements	Chief Limitations
Augur Boring (AB)	Entry & Exit bore pits. Length 8-11 m (26-36 ft) Width 2.5-3.5 m (8-12 ft). Room for storing augers, casing etc.	Variety of soils conditions (see Table 9)	High	High capital cost for equipment, high set-up cost (bore pits); cannot be used in wet runny sands, soil with large boulders.
Microtunneling (MT)	Primary Jacking Pit: 4 m (20 ft) long, 3 m (10 ft) wide, smaller retrieval pit, room for slurry tanks, pipe storage.	Variety of soil conditions including full-face rock and high groundwater head.	High to operate sophisticated equipment	High capital cost and set-up costs, obstructions.
Horizontal Directional Drilling (HDD)	Access pits not required. Space for set up of rig and drilling fluid tank: 120 m x 60 m (400 ft x 200 ft)	Clay is ideal. Cohesionless sand and silt require bentonite. Gravel and cobbles are unsuitable.	High degree of knowledge of downhole drilling, sensing and recording. Training essential.	Requires very high degree of operator skill. Not suitable for high degree of accuracy such as gravity sewer application. Can install only pipes with high tensile strength e.g., steel, HDPE.
Mini-Horizontal Directional Drilling (Mini-HDD)	Equipment is portable and self-contained. Requires minimal area.	Soft soils, clay and sand. Unsuitable for rocks and gravel.	Same as HDD	Accuracy dependent on range of the electromagnetic receiver (≤ 15 m/ ≤ 50 ft)
Steerable Impact Moling	Bore pit size varies from 6x36x 18in (150x900x450 mm) to 10x 30x15 ft (3x9x4.5m)	Soft to medium compressible soils. Dense soils are unsuitable.	Basic Limited training	Steerable tools are a recent innovation and lack a track record.
Non-steerable Impact Moling	Same as Steerable Impact Moling	Same as Steerable Impact Moling	Basic Limited training	Impact tools often get stuck and veer off target requiring abandonment of boreholes
Pipe Ramming	Large surface area required to accommodate bore pit, excavated soil, air compressor, pipe to be installed, etc.	Almost all soil types. Earthen plug formed at the leading edge of casing preventing soil flowing into pipe.	Fair skill & knowledge required to determine initial alignment, make decisions on open or close faced bore, lubrication requirements, etc.	No control over line and grade. A large piece of rock or boulder can easily deflect pipe from design path. Pipe has tendency to drop and/or come up to the surface. For larger pipe diameters equipment cost increases substantially. Specialized operation requiring great deal of planning and coordination. High capital cost.

OVERVIEW OF TRENCHLESS METHODS (cont.)

Method	Working Space Required	Compatible Soil Type	Operator Skill Requirements	Chief Limitations
Pipe Jacking	Jacking pit is a function of pipe size. Pit sizes vary from 10-30 ft (3-9 m)	Stable granular and cohesive soils are best. Unstable sand is least favorable. Large boulders cause frequent work stoppage. Method can be executed with any ground condition with adequate precautions.	This is a specialized operation requiring a great deal of skill and training. Line & grade tolerances are usually very tight and corrective actions can be very expensive.	Specialized operation requiring great deal of planning and coordination. High capital cost.
Utility Tunneling	Smaller surface area as compared to PJ due to compactness of the liner system. Access pit size varies from 9 to 25 ft. (2.7-7.5m)	Same as PJ	Same as PJ	High capital and set-up cost. Carrier pipe is required to carry the utility and the space between the carrier pipe and liner has to be grouted to provide adequate support unless a permanent lining system is used.

APPLICABILITY OF TRENCHLESS TECHNIQUES IN VARIOUS SOIL CONDITIONS

	Soil type	Cohesive Soils (Clay)			Cohesionless Soils (sand/silt)					
Soil and Groundwater	N Value (Standard Penetration Value as per ASTM D 1452)	N<5 (soft)	N=5-15 (firm)	N>15 (stiff-hard)	N<10-30 (loose)	N=10-30 (medium)	N>30 (dense)	High Ground Water	Boulders	Full-Face Rock
Applications	Auger Boring (AB)	○	*	*	○	*	*	x	≤33%φ ¹	≤12ksi
	Microtunneling (MT)	*	*	*	●	*	*	*	≤33%φ ¹	≤30ksi
	Maxi/Midi-Horizontal Directional Drilling (HDD)	○	*	*	○	*	*	○	○	≤15ksi
	Mini-Horizontal Directional Drilling (Mini-HDD)	○	*	*	○	*	*	○	x	x
	Impact Moling/Soil Displacement	○	*	*	x	*	●	x	x	x
	Pipe Ramming	*	*	*	●	●	●	○	≤90%φ	x
	Pipe Jacking (PJ)									
	W/ TBM	○	*	*	○	*	*	○	○	≤30ksi
	W/ Hand Mining (HM)	x	*	*	○	*	*	x	≤95%φ	○
	Utility Tunneling (UT) ²									
	W/ TBM	○	*	*	○	*	*	○	○	≤30ksi
	W/ Hand Mining (HM)	○	*	*	○	*	*	○	≤95%φ	*

*: Recommended ○: Possible x: Unsuitable

(This table is based on the assumption that experienced operators using proper equipment perform work)

¹ Size of largest boulder versus minimum casing diameter (φ)

² Ground conditions may require either a closed face, earth pressure balance, or slurry shield.

COST RANGE FOR TRENCHLESS CONSTRUCTION METHODS (Based on Midwest Cost Indices, 1996)^{1,2}

TT Method	Cost Range	Installation Comments
Auger Boring (AB)	\$0.40-0.50/D.MM/M (\$3-4/D.I./LF)	Line and grade not critical
	\$0.50-0.80/D.MM/M (\$4-6/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical
Slurry Boring (SB)	\$0.15-0.40/D.MM/M (\$1-3/D.I./LF)	Line and grade not critical
Microtunneling (MT)	\$1.70-2.60/D.MM/M (\$13-20/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical
Horizontal Directional Drilling (HDD) ³		
Maxi	\$650-1,650/M (\$200-500/LF)	Line and grade not critical
Midi	\$160-650/M (\$50-200/LF)	Line and grade not critical
Mini	\$15-160/M (\$5-50/LF)	Line and grade not critical
Soil Compaction	\$0.15-0.25/D.MM/M (\$1-2/D.I./LF)	Line and grade not critical
Pipe Ramming (PR) ⁴	\$0.40-0.80/D.MM/M (\$3-6/D.I./LF)	Line and grade not critical
Pipe Jacking		
W/ TBM	\$0.65-1.15/D.MM/M (\$5-9/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical
W/ Hand Mining (HM)	\$0.80-1.90/D.MM/M (\$6-15/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical
Utility Tunneling		
W/ TBM	\$0.80-1.30/D.MM/M (\$6-10/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical
W/ Hand Mining (HM)	\$0.90-2/D.MM/M (\$7-16/D.I./LF)	Line and grade critical

TBM: Tunnel Boring Machine, D.I.: Per Inch of Pipe Diameter, LF: Per Linear Foot of Pipe, D.MM.: Per 100 MM of Pipe Diameter, and M: Per Meter of Pipe.

¹Cost includes cost of installation, mobilization, de-mobilization and planning. Does not include casing/carrier pipe material cost, cost for preparing entry/exit pits and shafts, or dewatering costs.

²Costs assume good ground conditions (i.e., sandy clay, sand, silt), moist ground, and fairly firm soils (N = 6-20) with shafts <6m (20 ft) deep, and bore length >5m (50 ft). Does not include mixed face condition or soil with significant rock formation or boulders.

³Horizontal Directional Drilling is not so much a function of the pipe diameter as it is the length of the bore for small diameters, e.g. in a Mini-HDD it costs the same to install a 50 mm (2 in) pipe as it costs to install a 150 mm (6 in) pipe provided the length remains the same. For diameters larger than 250 mm (10 in), the cost is a function of both the diameter and length of the installed pipe. This method is primarily used by the utility industry for small diameter bores; therefore, consider using other TEC methods.

⁴Pipe Ramming requires a heavier pipe to sustain the dynamic loads. This will affect the material costs.

9.1.2.2.1 Pipe Jacking

Pipe jacking is a trenchless method for installing a pipe through the ground from a drive shaft to a reception shaft. The pipe is propelled by jacks located in the drive shaft. The jacking force is transmitted through the pipe to the face of the pipe jacking excavation.

The pipe jacking method may be used to install reinforced concrete or steel pipe with diameters ranging from as low as 450 mm to as great as 3350 mm. However, both excavation and spoil removal processes usually require workers inside the pipe during the jacking operation. Therefore the minimum recommended diameter is 1050 mm (42 in.) in order for workers to have access through the pipe to the leading end. This method is

widely used, particularly where deep excavations are necessary or where conventional open excavation and backfill methods may not be feasible.

During the jacking process, soil is removed either mechanically or manually from the leading end of the pipe. Either an auger or conveyor can be used to transport the excavated material back to the jacking pit. See pictures below:



Once the jacking process is started, it typically is specified that the process be continued uninterrupted until completion so as to keep the pipe from "freezing" in place. Lubricants often are applied to the exterior of the pipe to be jacked to reduce frictional resistance.

Two types of loads are imposed on pipe installed by the jacking method:

- the axial load due to the hydraulic jacks,
- and earth loading due to overburden. This vertical load generally becomes effective only after the installation is complete.

The axial or thrust jacking loads are transmitted from one pipe section to another through the joint surfaces. It is essential that the pipe ends are parallel so that there will be a relatively uniform distribution of forces around the periphery of the pipe. Specifying a higher class of pipe provides little or no gain in axial crushing resistance.

As with any trenchless excavation construction method, the feasibility of pipe jacking for a given site must be established before construction through exploratory soil borings or other information relating to the composition of the soil likely to be encountered. Pipe

jacking requires that the soil be relatively uniform in composition and free from large boulders or rock outcroppings.

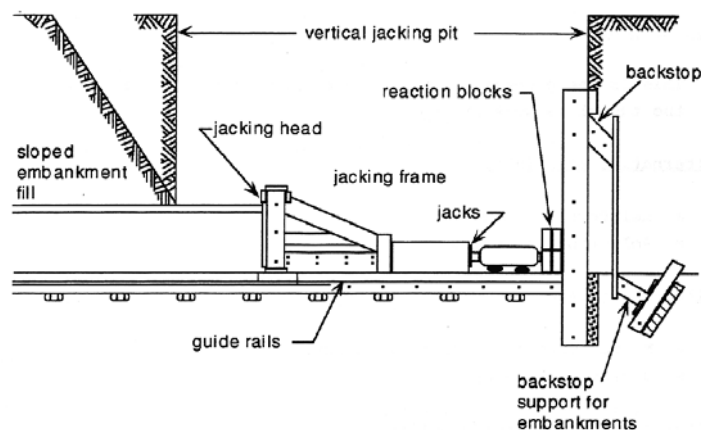
The local variations in pressure on the leading section can result in damage to the culvert sections, misalignment, and voids in the fill. Similarly, jacking through groundwater bearing strata may present difficulties, especially in sandy soils as the saturated soil may flow into the pipe. This can lead to reduced soil densities above and around the pipe.



RCP Pipe Jacking example

For long pipelines and culverts, it may be necessary to establish intermediate-jacking stations, so that predetermined jacking force limitations will not be exceeded. The location of intermediate jacking pits is decided after consideration of several factors. Since a primary advantage of this method is the elimination of traffic impacts, intermediate jacking pits also should be located to minimize traffic disturbance. Storage of materials and equipment is also a concern and may require temporary guardrail or traffic barrier to shield traffic from the site. Diversion of stream or overland flow will also be necessary to prevent flooding of the jacking pit.

During the jacking procedure, care should be given to personnel safety. Hydraulic jacks that can cause breakage of materials exert heavy pressures. Hydraulic hose lines also may rupture and cause injury.



A typical equipment setup for jacking concrete pipe is as shown schematically above.

A variation on pipe jacking is noted in a process involving a steam-powered hammer (much like a pile driver) instead of a pneumatic jack. Because of the energy involved with each blow, a mandrel must precede the driven pipe. Similar to the jacking process, the hammering process requires the removal of displaced soil and material as the pipe moves into the embankment.

A viable alternative to using RCP or steel pipe for pipe jacking is fiber reinforced polymer concrete pipe (FRPC) or reinforced polymer mortar (RPMP), which is about a third of the weight per foot of precast RCP. See FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 1, page 2-27 and Index 2.1.1.1.3.1 of this D.I.B. Also refer to Caltrans HDM, Section 829.8 and the Standard Specifications Section 65-1.05, for specific procedures, limitations and other considerations for Jacking Pipe.

It should be noted that Section 66-3.10 of the Standard Specifications for Jacking Pipes under 'Corrugated Metal Pipe' usually requires a larger diameter and stiffer pipe material (casing) to be jacked. Other reasons for requiring encasement may include:

- To avoid future roadway excavation for repair, and
- To ensure the structural integrity of the roadbed and pipe.

9.1.2.2.2 Microtunneling

No universally accepted definition for microtunneling (MT) exists. However, MT can be described as a remotely controlled, guided pipe jacking process that provides continuous support to the excavation face. MT is a trenchless construction method for installing culverts beneath roadways in a wide range of soil conditions while maintaining close tolerances to line and grade from the drive shaft to a reception shaft. The most common way to categorize MT is by the spoil removal system (i.e., slurry or auger). A slurry system is more capable of handling wet, unstable ground conditions. Both auger and slurry MT systems have five independent systems:

- Microtunneling boring machine
- Jacking or propulsion system
- Spoil removal system
- Laser guidance and remote control system; and
- Pipe lubrication system

The most common materials used for MT are RCP, ductile iron, welded steel, and fiber reinforced polymer concrete pipe (FRPC) or reinforced polymer mortar (RPMP). The range in diameter experienced in the U.S. is from 300 mm to 3500 mm, However, the most common range is from 610 mm to 1220 mm.

Settlements typically associated with microtunneling, or other tunnel construction methods, include two types: large settlements and systematic settlements. Large settlements occur primarily as a result of over excavation by the tunneling or microtunneling machine leading to the loss of stability at the face and the creation of

voids above the installed pipe or tunnel. Large settlements are almost always the result of improper operation of the machine, or sudden unexpected changes in ground conditions. Large settlements must be avoided through geotechnical investigation and good workmanship by the Contractor. The importance of a skilled and experienced machine operator cannot be over-emphasized.

Systematic settlements are primarily caused by the collapse of the overcut, or annular space, between the jacking pipe and the excavation, and to a lesser extent by elastic deformations of the soil ahead of the advancing tunnel. The overcut is necessary in microtunneling and pipe jacking to allow lubrication to be injected, to decrease jacking forces to reasonable levels, and to facilitate steering of the microtunnel boring machine (MTBM). During tunneling, or after the tunnel is completed, the soil may collapse or squeeze onto the pipe, resulting in settlements at the surface. Systematic settlements can be controlled by limiting the radial overcut the contractor is allowed to use, as well as filling the annulus with bentonite lubricant during tunneling, and with cement grout after tunneling is completed. Systematic settlements generally decrease with distance above the crown of the pipe and with lateral distance from the centerline of the pipe. Systematic settlements decrease as the annular overcut decreases, and as soil consistency (density, stiffness) increases. Systematic settlements also decrease as pipe diameter decreases. See Index 9.1.2.3, settlement monitoring, under other consideration for TEC.

For machine tunneling with steel or concrete segments used as temporary supports, an overcut or gap is created between the excavated bore and the support ring outside diameter as the supports are erected and bolted into place inside the tail of the shield. The tunnel boring machine (TBM) is propelled off the previously installed supports, and as the support ring exits the shield, a gap is created. For segmental steel or concrete rings, the ring can be expanded against the soil surrounding the bore as the rings exit the shield. In this case, a special spacer segment is used to fill the gap in the circumference created by the expansion of the rings against the soil. The remaining gap is then grouted.



Jacking pit for 1200 mm RCP Microtunneling project under American River, Sacramento

9.1.2.2.3 Pipe Bursting and Pipe Splitting

Pipe Bursting (for brittle materials) and Pipe Splitting (for ductile materials) are processes in which the trenchless pipe replacement is carried out by pulling a new pipe (typically fusion welded HDPE) behind a cone ended bursting tool. The bursting tool is pneumatically or hydraulically driven and effectively hammers its way through the host pipe, displacing the fragments into the surrounding soil, while simultaneously pulling the new pipe into place behind it. Pipe Bursting is the only trenchless method that allows for the upsizing of the original pipe

Pipe bursting can be used on almost any type of existing pipe except ductile iron or heavily reinforced concrete. Segmental replacement pipe can be used in lieu of fused pipe, but requires jacking equipment to force it in behind the bursting unit. Currently the applicable size range is limited to between 50-1350 mm, with larger units becoming available. The typical length of pipe replaced by pipe busting is slightly over 100 m, but greater lengths have been done. In addition, depth, soil conditions, peripheral utilities and service connections will dictate whether pipe bursting is appropriate.

9.1.2.2.4 Trenchless Replacement References

NCRHP Synthesis 242 – ‘Trenchless Installation of Conduits Beneath Roadways’.

<http://www.usroads.com/journals/rmej/9804/rm980403.htm>

AASHTO Highway Drainage Guidelines/Volume XIV, 5.1.4.4 Pipe Bursting (Existing pipe material must be clay, RCP, cast iron or PVC).

ASCE Standard Construction Guidelines for Microtunneling, December 28, 1998.

So.Cal. APWA and the AGC of California in their STANDARD SPECIFICATIONS FOR PUBLIC WORKS CONSTRUCTION-MICROTUNNELING 1994 EDITION.

No-Dig Engineering Journal, published by Trenchless Technology Incorporated

9.1.2.3 Other Considerations for TEC

The following guidelines are for trenchless projects where the potential for subsidence (loss of ground) and risk is high.

High-tech methods do not necessarily mean safer methods. The amount of risk depends on the contractor's experience in addition to a number of factors that require engineering judgment such as: depth of cover, diameter of tunnel, proposed methods, tunnelman's classification of materials to be tunneled (cohesionless sands, gravels, and cobbles or boulders below groundwater surface are probably the worst) and potential obstructions.

In house designs should consider the following four categories. Depending on complexity, it may be necessary to hire a consultant to perform the design:

1. Geotechnical Investigation
2. Settlement Monitoring
3. Contractor Submittals
4. Contract Inspection

Items 2 and 3 should be addressed in the Plans and Specifications and should be based on the results of Item 1. Geotechnical Design within the Division of Engineering Services (DES) should review the Geotechnical Reports and the Plans and Specifications prior to bid. If cohesion less materials below the ground water table or "running or flowing ground" conditions are identified, special precaution should be taken in the permit review. The Contractor Submittals to the Engineer required in the Contract Documents should be provided for Caltrans review prior to starting work. The Contract Inspection should depend on the proposed trenchless methods, project complexity, and risk to the public.

1. Geotechnical Investigation

A minimum of two borings, one on each side the highway crossing is recommended. An additional boring should be made in the median if practical. This can be increased or reduced depending on risk and variability of tunneled materials.

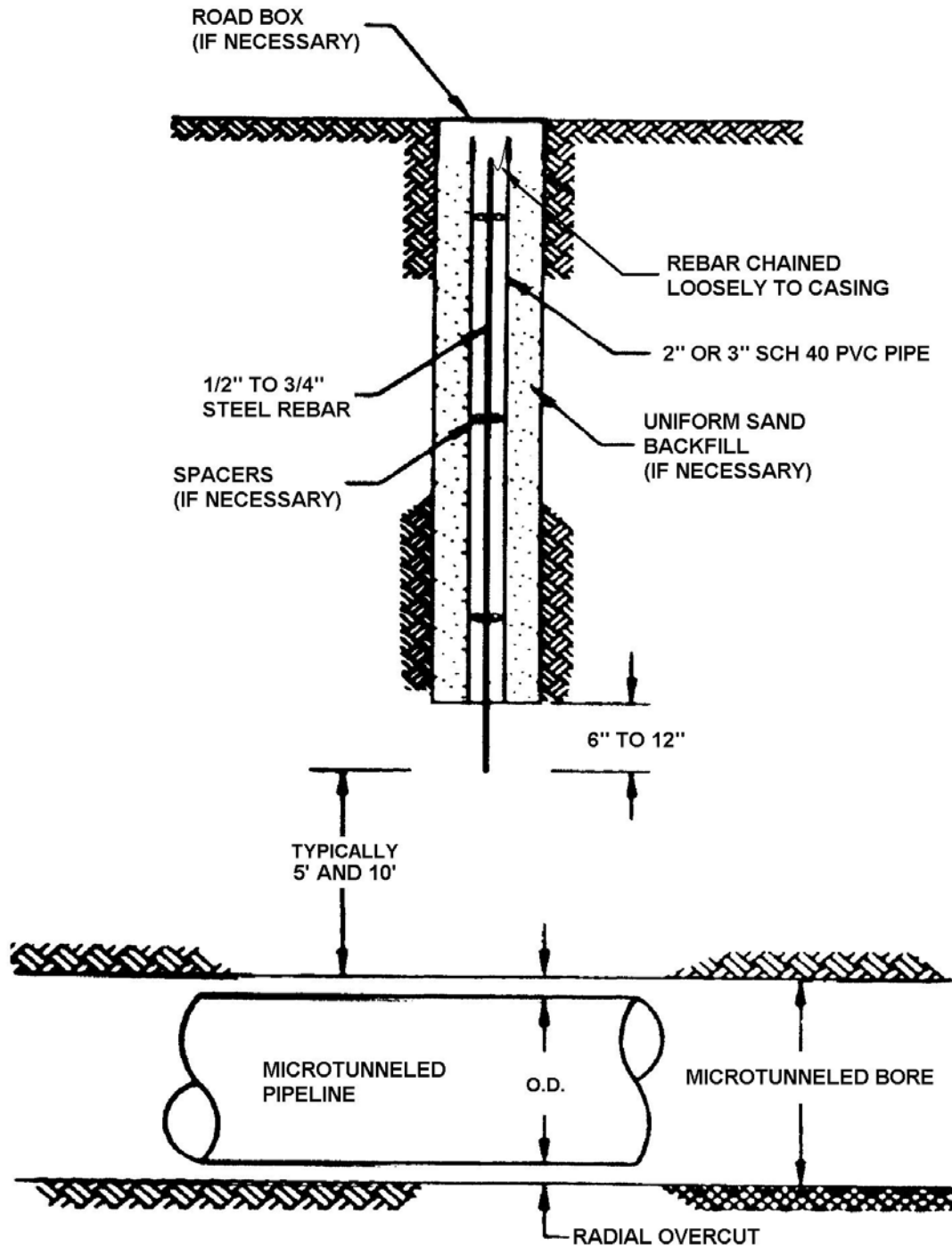
2. Settlement Monitoring

The ground movements caused by trenchless pipe installation techniques can have a significant effect on adjacent services and road structures.

Surface settlement is mainly a result of loss of ground during tunneling and dewatering operations that cause subsidence. During microtunneling, loss of ground may be associated with soil squeezing, running, or flowing into the heading; losses due to the size of overcut; and steering adjustments. The actual magnitudes of these losses are largely dependent on the type and strength of the ground, groundwater conditions, size and depth of the pipe, equipment capabilities, and the skill of the contractor in operating and steering the machine. Sophisticated microtunneling equipment that has the capability to exert a stabilizing pressure at the tunnel face, equal to that of the insitu soil and groundwater pressures, will minimize loss of ground and surface settlement without the need for dewatering.

In general, the subsurface monitoring points should be installed at 1.5 m and 3 m above the crown of the proposed tunnel near the jacking shaft, above utilities, and on shoulders of roadways, to evaluate the Contractor's operations before proceeding under critical locations. Additional points at non-critical locations should be monitored to gain an early indication of Contractor workmanship.

Simple subsurface monitoring points (see below) that consist of a length of steel rebar installed inside a cased borehole that extends to the desired height above the tunnel crown are recommended.



SETTLEMENT MONITORING POINT DETAIL

The materials needed are 13 mm to 19 mm (1/2- to 3/4- inch) diameter rebar and 50 mm (2-inch) diameter, Schedule 40, PVC pipe installed in a vertical borehole drilled to the desired depth of the settlement point. The casing should be covered with a cap to protect it from the weather and a road box can be used if the point is installed inside a traffic area. The casing is installed at 1.5 m or 3 m above the proposed tunnel crown, and the rebar is inserted into the casing and driven 150 mm to 300 mm below the bottom of the casing, into undisturbed soil. In this way, the response of the ground can be monitored very closely as the microtunneling or tunneling machine passes beneath the point. These simple settlement points have been shown to perform more reliably than surface points and more complicated and expensive multiple-point borehole extensometers, which may tend to bridge over settlements until heavy loads pass over the affected areas.

Surface settlement monitoring points may be used to supplement the subsurface points. However, surface points only indicate gross settlements at the surface after subsurface ground loss has occurred. Due to the shear strength of soils, and the rigidity of pavement and other structures, voids created at depth may not appear at the ground surface for days, weeks, or even months after the tunnel has been completed. By monitoring ground movements much closer to the tunneling operations, at strategic locations before passing beneath the critical features, ground losses, if any, can be detected in time to fill voids quickly before surface facilities are affected, and more importantly, to alert the contractor to alter their procedures to prevent further ground loss.

Once installed, the monitoring points should be surveyed prior to tunneling to establish the baseline. Surveying should then proceed at least once a day, or every 15 m of advancement, whichever is more frequent. In addition to daily monitoring by survey, the points should be checked at more frequent intervals by the onsite inspector using a tape measure as the tunneling machine or MTBM approaches and passes beneath the points.

SETTLE MONITORING POINTS	FREQUENCY	ACTION LEVEL*	MAXIMUM ALLOWED**
Surface	Hourly when heading is within 7 m, otherwise daily	6 mm (1/4 inch)	13 mm (1/2 inch)
Surface (in traffic lanes)	Before and after tunneling	-----	6 mm (1/4 inch)
Subsurface	Hourly when heading is within 7 m, otherwise daily	38 mm (1.5 inches)	64 mm (2.5 inches)

* Corrective action taken (filling voids and alerting contractor to alter their procedures: Systematic settlements can be controlled by limiting the radial overcut the contractor is allowed to use, as well as filling the annulus with bentonite lubricant during tunneling)

** Mitigation such as grouting required

An independent Instrumentation Specialist should install and monitor the settlement monitoring points. The survey accuracy of the settlement monitoring points should be to 1.524 mm (0.005 foot).

Calculations of expected systematic settlements can be made to determine whether changes in pipe depth and spacing of multiple pipes are needed, or whether changes to construction methods or ground improvement are necessary to prevent damage to existing surface facilities. Settlements may be evaluated using methods developed by Birger Schimdt and Peck (1969). This approach models systematic settlements as an inverted normal probability curve, or settlement trough, with maximum settlements occurring directly above the centerline of the tunnel, and with settlements decreasing with distance from the tunnel centerline. The approach actually has no theoretical basis in soil mechanics, but has been adopted based on empirical correlations with observed settlement magnitudes and distributions. The equations and diagram for the calculations are shown in Figure 1.

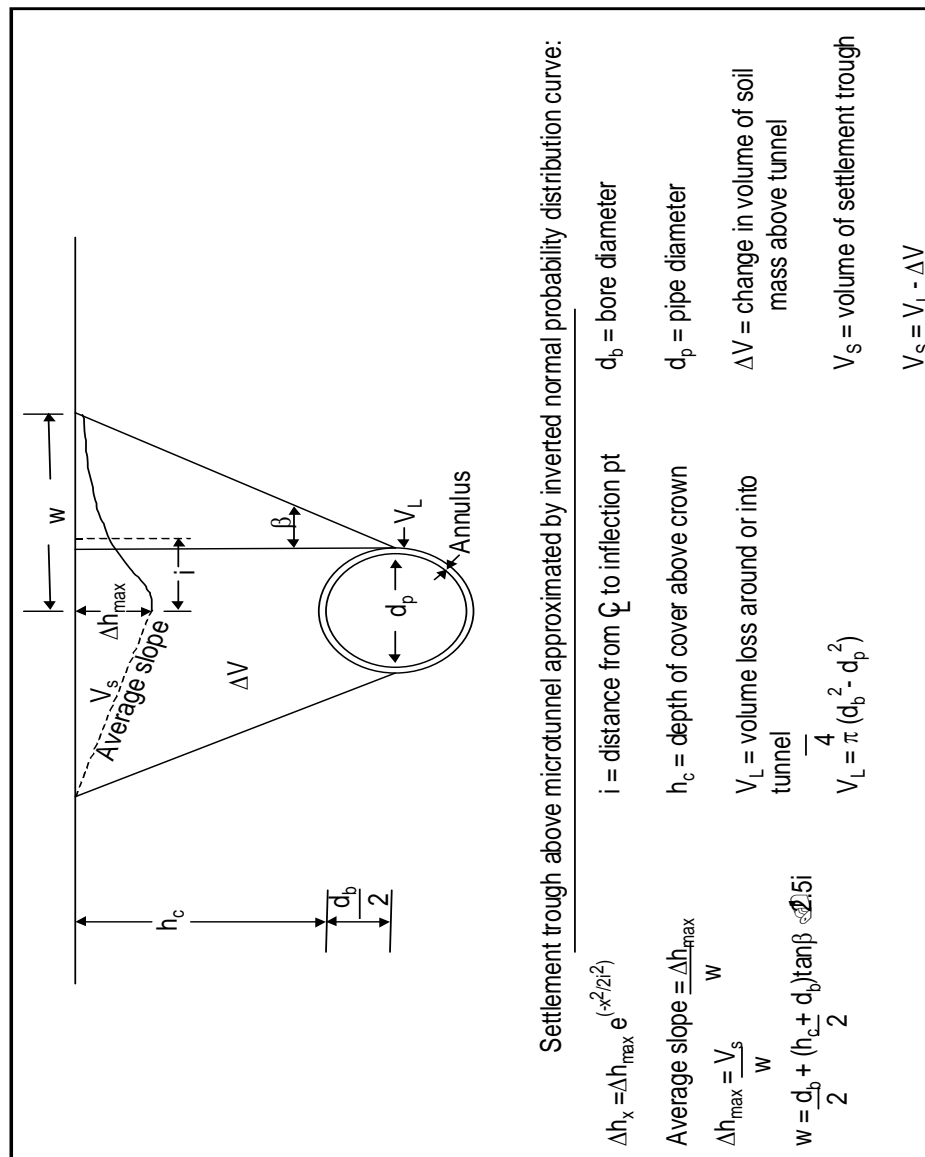


Figure 1 - Systematic Settlement Diagram (Modified from Cording & Hansmire, 1975)

3. Contractor Submittals

The following submittal requirements are presented below as an example and are specifically for microtunneling (see Index 9.1.2.2.2), however, similar information is required for other types of boring.

- 1) Manufacturers' data sheets and specifications describing in detail the microtunneling system to be used.
- 2) Detailed description of similar projects with references on which the proposed system had been successfully used by contractor/operator.
- 3) Description of method to remove and dispose of spoil.
- 4) Maximum anticipated jacking loads and supporting calculations.
- 5) Description of methods to control and dispose of ground water, spoil, temporary shoring, and other materials encountered in the maintenance and construction of pits and shafts.
- 6) Shaft dimensions, locations, surface construction, profile, depth, method of excavation, shoring, bracing, and thrust block design.
- 7) Pipe design data and specifications.
- 8) A description of the grade and alignment control system.
- 9) Intermediate jacking station locations and design.
- 10) Description of lubrication and/or grouting system.
- 11) Layout plans and description of operational sequence.
- 12) A detailed plan for monitoring ground surface movement (settlement or heave) due to microtunneling operation. The plan shall address the method and frequency of survey measurement. At minimum, the plan shall measure the ground movement of all structures, roadways, parking lots, and any other areas of concern within the calculated settlement trough of all microtunneling pipelines. A description of how settlements will be monitored and excessive settlements will be avoided and contingency plan should also be required to establish how the Contractor will mitigate any excessive settlements. A pre-construction survey should also be required in the Contract Documents and conducted by the Contractor, accompanied by the Engineer and Owner representatives, to document pre-construction conditions and protect against frivolous claims.

13) Contingency plans for approval for the following potential conditions: damage to pipeline structural integrity and repair; loss and return to line and grade; and loss of ground.

14) Procedures to meet all applicable OSHA requirements. These procedures shall be submitted for a record purpose only and will not be subject to approval by the Engineer. At a minimum, the Contractor shall provide the following:

- a) Protection against soil instability and ground water inflow.
- b) Safety for shaft access and exit, including ladders, stairs, walkways, and hoists.
- c) Protection against mechanical and hydraulic equipment operations, and for lifting and hoisting equipment and material.
- d) Ventilation and lighting.
- e) Monitoring for hazardous gases.
- f) Protection against flooding and means for emergency evacuation.
- g) Protection of shaft, including traffic barriers, accidental or unauthorized entry, and falling objects.
- h) Emergency protection equipment.
- i) Safety supervising responsibilities.

15) Annular space grouting plans if required by Contract Documents.

4. Contract Inspection

If in house expertise is not available, it may be necessary to have full time inspection performed by an underground construction-engineering firm specializing in the tunneling methods to be used. This covers other possible methods, which can be evaluated from the Contractor Submittals.

10.1 New Product Approval Process and Construction-Evaluated Experimental Feature Program

A significant number of the rehabilitation techniques that have been identified in this D.I.B. include new products, which have not yet been formally approved for use by Caltrans as such; specifications have not been developed or adopted. In 1995, the Department issued Deputy Directive DD-45, which established Caltrans policy on new product evaluations, defined a “new product,” and instituted the position of New Product Coordinator appointed by the Engineering Services Division Chief. See Appendix B for a flow chart of the New Product Approval Process. New Product Evaluation Guidelines are available on-line at the following web site address:

http://www.dot.ca.gov/hq/esc/approved_products_list/NPGuidelines.html

The intent of the Construction-Evaluated (C-E) Experimental Feature Program is to field test the constructability and performance of promising new products, techniques and methods relating to highway facilities. A feature is considered experimental whenever it involves a “non-standard” item or process, or a “proprietary” (brand-name) product.

The C-E Program is not a method for approving a “non-standard” item or process, or a “proprietary” construction feature without proper evaluation and reporting (federal funds can be rescinded during the audit process if this is determined). However, the C-E Program may be a useful tool for using some of the non-approved products described in this D.I.B. and may help justify their ultimate approval for use within the new product process described above.

After a C-E project is approved, Caltrans typically evaluates how the feature is performing over a three to five year period. Under federal guidelines, Caltrans is generally limited to five projects exhibiting the same experimental feature.

The Resource Conservation Branch within Headquarters Division of Design is assigned the responsibility to act as Caltrans’ liaison with FHWA and is their delegated authority for State authorized projects concerning all C-E projects. Although the C-E Project Program is a federal effort, it is important that experimental projects involving “state only” funds also be reported and monitored by the Resource Conservation Branch. To obtain approval for an experimental feature, a work plan should be submitted to Resource Conservation Branch no later than three (3) weeks prior to project advertisement. The Office of Highway Drainage Design within Headquarters Division of Design should also review all work plans involving drainage features. Furthermore, Office Engineer requires approval from the Office of Highway Drainage Design for all non-standard drainage features.

If a proprietary item is involved, approval must be obtained from the District Director or Deputy Director for Project Development. Copy of the approval letters should be sent to Resource Conservation Branch. See HDM Index 602.1 (6), for procedures for obtaining approval of proprietary items.

11.1 Other Considerations

11.1.1 Supporting Roadway and Traffic Loads

Our understanding of the final stages that lead to pipe or roadway prism collapse is still limited. Collapse/catastrophic failure normally originates where an initial, often minor, defect allows further deterioration to occur. Such defects may include:

- Cracking or deflection caused by excessive vertical load or bad bedding,
- Poor construction practice,
- Leaking joints or perforated invert,
- Damage caused by third parties;

Therefore it is not possible to predict when a pipe and/or the roadway prism will collapse. However it is possible to judge whether a pipe has deteriorated sufficiently beyond its maintenance free service life (see HDM Topic 852) for collapse of the pipe and/or the roadway prism to be likely. As previously discussed (see Index 5.1.1.2.1) it should be noted Reinforced Concrete Pipe will fail but rarely “collapse”.

Collapse is often triggered by some random event that may not be related to the cause of deterioration, perhaps a storm or an excavation nearby. Serious defects do not always lead quickly to collapse; in one study of pipe collapses there were many minor defects compared to the number of collapses that occurred.

Soils

The following general discussion on risk of ground loss and voids on cohesionless and cohesive soils should be considered in context with the assumption that an existing pipe (either rigid or flexible) has been placed in accordance with the Standard Plans and Standard Specifications as referenced in Indices 2.1.1.1.1 and 2.1.1.2.

When evaluating the potential for soil loss or soil arching, the engineer must understand that imported material placed as either structure backfill or roadway embankment may differ significantly from native soils. The following discussion on soil behavior must be viewed within the context of the various soil properties which may exist in close proximity to the culvert - i.e., perforations or other discontinuities which might allow for soil migration may lead to soil reactions that vary significantly from the reaction of native soils depending upon the specific nature of structure backfill material and any other soil material placed above the pipe.

Risk of ground loss from subsurface erosion during storm flows is generally low for most soil types except cohesionless soils (silts and silty fine sands). However, for pipes with defects larger than 10 mm, any soil type can be affected by severe ground loss. If infiltration occurs, even if there is no hydraulic surcharging, almost all silts and sands will be highly susceptible to ground loss through large defects. Only well graded sandy gravels whose coarser part includes gravel particles of at least medium size will not be susceptible to ground loss. For smaller defect sizes well-graded sandy fine gravels would

also be resistant. Silts and sands without gravel in the grading are likely to migrate even through minor defects.

If hydraulic surcharge does occur all cohesionless soils apart from well-graded sandy, medium to coarse gravels are likely to be highly susceptible to migration through minor defects.

Cohesive Soils: If infiltration occurs, then clay (invisible particles less than 0.005 mm in diameter) backfills with a plasticity index (PI - an indicator of the “clayey”ness” of a soil determined by the difference between the liquid limit and plastic limit per AASTHO T-90-00) lower than about 15 are susceptible to migration through severe and large defects irrespective of whether hydraulic surcharging takes place. If the PI exceeds about 15 then it is probable that ground loss will only occur through severe defects; ground loss in these circumstances is sensitive to the head of ground water present.

Water flow through the voids in clay backfill tends to erode the soil and high heads of water due to high ground water tables accelerate this process. Clays containing coarse particles (such as fill and many glacial tills) are more prone to erosion because the soil particles tend to induce more turbulent conditions. Undisturbed clays normally have a low percentage of voids, which reduces the risk of erosion even if the plasticity is low. Thus pipes constructed by tunnelling in clay are unlikely to suffer ground loss from the virgin ground but the material around the pipe will behave like trench fill.

Voids above the water table can remain stable, through capillary suction in cohesionless soils and through tensile strength in cohesive soils. Below the water table large voids can only be stable in cohesive soils. If a large void exists in a cohesionless soil above the water table, any wetting of the surface caused by hydraulic surcharge will destroy the capillary suction and the void will tend to collapse. This will produce a zone of loosened soil next to the pipe, which may be lost through defects. The void may migrate upwards away from the pipe. In a cohesive soil above the water table surcharge can cause progressive softening of the soil around the void, which can lead to further loss of soil and to the void increasing in size. Below the water table a void in a cohesive material will act as a drainage path and softening and erosion can also lead to an increase in size. Voids in cohesive soils both above and below the water table can also collapse and migrate away from the pipe leaving a zone of loose soft ground. In the fieldwork undertaken by others, voids or evidence of them was found at a number of the collapse sites studied.

Voids that develop around culverts which have been in place for a long time are similar to voids around newly installed jacked pipes and tunnels; They may go undetected until the overlying ground collapses into the void loosening this material. This loosened material, which supports the roadway, may immediately cause a depression or sinkhole at the surface, or it may occur at a later date when the loosened material re-densifies with the help of water, traffic vibrations, earthquake shaking, etc. For jacked pipes and tunnels, probing is often done from within the pipes and grouting is performed to fill the voids. See Index 6.1.2. Probing for voids may be performed within any large diameter pipe.

Stresses and Deformation

Deteriorated pipes in granular soils often experienced low vertical stresses from the overburden due to the very efficient arching capability of the circular or near circular shape in frictional soil materials. However vertical stresses on pipes in clays are closer to the full overburden stress and large deformations are required to mobilize the full soil strength to support the structure laterally.

Deformation of flexible pipes will occur when the soil at the sides no longer provides adequate support. This is clear evidence that deterioration is taking place. Final collapse is unlikely to occur until deformation exceeds 10%-12% (see Index 5.1.2.2.4) but typically only if other issues are present (sinkholes/depressions, etc. which show the fact that there has been loss of support) however, this final stage could occur quickly in response to an external influence.

With no other signs of distress, a flexible pipe deflected at 10% due to excessive load or improper compaction that is not perforated or is not experiencing soil loss, is not necessarily something to be alarmed about, and may need only monitoring. However, other pipes experiencing the same 10% deflection where;

- a) The invert is fully perforated and, cohesionless soils are present, or,
- b) Surface subsidence is present

are far more susceptible to collapse/catastrophic failure at 10% deflection due to some triggering mechanism. Therefore, depending on what conditions are present, our response to it may be to take immediate action or to monitor. It should be noted that the severity of impacts resulting from collapse would typically increase with pipe diameter.

Lining

When considering the viability of lining a deteriorated pipe with a flexible lining, calculations for ground and traffic loadings can be made but are very approximate due to the difficulty of assessing the equivalent stiffness of the old pipe, soil, and grout (if used) supporting the flexible lining. (See Index 6.1.1). For shallow pipes, traffic loading accounts for approximately half of the total loading. For pipes deeper than 2 meters, traffic loading accounts for approximately 25% of the total loading or less. Good ground support is present around most existing pipes. If the pipe to be renovated is in a reasonably sound condition and loadings on the pipe are not expected to increase (e.g. changes to highway profile grade), then the surrounding ground will normally provide enough support to carry existing ground and traffic loads and to ensure structural stability, particularly if soil voids are filled with grout as recommended.

Flexible pipes with excessive deflection (15% or more) will typically need to be replaced. If hydraulically possible (i.e., adequate cross sectional area can be maintained without a significant increase in headwater), heavily deflected flexible pipe may be lined with a rigid material (typically RCP or RPMP) that is capable of supporting all ground and traffic loads.

11.1.2 Compaction Grouting

Compaction grouting is the injection of very stiff, low-slump, mortar-type Portland cement based grout (possibly with special admixtures including polymer resins) that is designed to stay in a homogeneous mass under relatively high pressure to displace and compact soils in place by acting as a radial hydraulic jack to strengthen loose or soft soils thus supporting roadway and traffic loads. Compaction grouting is used primarily on large pipelines applied through prepared grout holes in the pipe wall into the surrounding soil or from grout tubes drilled through the fill. Compaction grouting may also be achieved with chemicals and foaming grout; however, chemical grouts should only be used in cohesionless soil for conditions requiring resistance to high fluid pressures. The material should not shrink, segregate or otherwise create additional problems. Portland cement based grout is adequate for most culvert grouting.

Because of the risk and potential of numerous problems associated with compaction grouting, the importance of early communication with the Geotechnical Design specialist from the Division of Engineering Services (DES) and coordination with headquarters cannot be over-emphasized.

Example Compaction Grouting Project Overview:

Project location: Century Freeway, Los Angeles, California.

Construction period: August, 1996 - August, 1997

General contractor: Denver Grouting Services, Inc.

Scope of work: Approximately 5000 cubic meters compaction grouting

Contract value: \$7,700,000

Background:

In March of 1995, major sinkholes occurred along a new 6.5-kilometer section of the I-105 freeway between the San Gabriel and Los Angeles Rivers in Los Angeles, CA. The sinkholes were attributed to infiltration of soil into the storm-drain system through insufficiently sealed pipe joints. Caltrans issued a multi-phased contract to Denver Grouting Services, Inc. (DGS) to: (1) stabilize the sub-soils and fill voids along alignments of Corrugated Metal (CMP) and Reinforced Concrete (RCP) storm-drain pipes beneath the freeway pavement, (2) repair leaking pipe joints, (3) mitigate liquefaction-potential along the pipe alignment under one of the pump-station structures, and (5) install water and observation wells for subsequent ground water draw-down testing.

This freeway was built as much as 12 m below surrounding ground levels, which required a major water-pumping system to be installed at the time of construction (1993). The storm drains were installed 4.6 to 6 m. below the road surface, which meant the storm drain pipes were as much as 18 m below the original ground level. The groundwater table was less than 1.5 m below the freeway pavement in some areas.

Solution:

Compaction Grouting was the method chosen to support the roadway and traffic loads by stabilizing the soils surrounding 4,400 m of RCP and CMP storm drains, and to densify

liquefiable sands beneath one of the pump structures. Storm-drain sizes included 600, 750, 900, 1050, 1200, and 1350 mm diameters. It should be emphasized that compaction grouting primarily applies to voids not immediately adjacent to the culvert (i.e., beyond 300 mm) to support the roadway and traffic loads. See Index 6.1.2 for grouting voids in the soil envelope immediately adjacent to the culvert.

Geotechnical Conditions:

The storm drains were installed through alluvial deposits consisting of medium sand, silty sand, silt and clayey silt layers which varied in thickness along the alignment. A mixture of these native soils had been used as storm-drain "trench" backfill at the time of construction. In general, very low densities and voids existed around storm drains where they were below the groundwater table, and soil infiltration was maximized. Fluctuating water tables had also affected the remaining alignments to varying degrees, creating unacceptable densities and created some localized voiding. Because depths of the CMP and RCP drains varied between 4.6 to 6 m. (below the road surface), it was determined that the ground improvement program should extend from a minimum of 1.5 m below the storm drains invert up to within 1.5 m. of the road surface. The work was to be performed with minimal disruption of traffic.

Cut-off Criteria

The grout injection cutoff criteria included:

Maximum 13 mm allowable pavement uplift or 13 mm storm-drain deflection. A predetermined volume of grout per 0.3 m stage.

Maximum grout pressure "at the header" of 3100 kPa (450 psi), or a sudden 345 kPa (50 psi) drop in pressure, indicating soil shear or grout travel was occurring.

Equipment

The Compaction Grout equipment employed met the requirements of Caltrans to minimize its operational "effects on traffic" and involved "The Denver System™" as developed by DGS, including:

- Mobile Grout Batch Plants
- DGS 2015 Mobile Grout Pumps
- DGS 2" I.D. Grout Casing, 0.9 m to 1.5 m lengths
- DGS Grout Casing Retrieval Systems
- Specialized Casing Driving Systems

11.1.3 Future Rehabilitation

Regardless of the rehabilitation method chosen, at some point in the future, the pipe will need to either be rehabilitated again or replaced. Therefore, consideration should be given to the projected service life of the rehabilitation materials and their future repair or removal when developing any rehabilitation strategy.

12.1 Appendixes**Page**

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Appendix A – Butt Fusion Procedures for Solid Wall HDPE Slipliner

Source:

<http://www.cpchem.com/performancepipe/literature/GeneralPurpose/PP750.pdf>

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BUTT FUSION

SET-UP PARAMETERS

HEATING TOOL SURFACE TEMPERATURE — MINIMUM 400°F — MAXIMUM 450°F (204 – 232°C)

Heating tool surfaces must be up to temperature before you begin. Before you begin, all points on both heating tool surfaces where the heating tool surfaces will contact the pipe or fitting ends must be within the prescribed minimum and maximum temperatures and the maximum temperature difference between any two points on the heating tool fusion surfaces must not exceed 20°F (11°C) for equipment for pipe smaller than 18-in. (450 mm) diameter, or 35°F (19°C) for larger equipment. Heating tool surfaces must be clean.

- Interface pressure — minimum 60 psi – maximum 90 psi (414 – 621 kPa; 4.14 – 6.21 bar)

When the properly heated mating surfaces are brought together, the force required to make the joint is the force that is necessary to roll the fusion melt beads over to the pipe surface. This is a visual determination.

Interface pressure is used to calculate a fusion joining pressure value for hydraulic butt fusion machines or manual machines equipped with a torque wrench. The same interface pressure is used for all pipe sizes and all butt fusion machines. However, fusion joining pressure settings for the butt fusion machine are calculated for each pipe OD and DR.

For hydraulic machines, the interface pressure, the fusion surface area, the machine's carriage cylinder size and internal drag pressure, and if necessary, the pressure needed to overcome external drag resistance, are used to calculate hydraulic fusion joining pressure gauge settings. The equipment manufacturer's instructions are used to calculate this value.

Interface pressure and fusion machine hydraulic fusion joining pressure gauge settings are not the same!

Procedure

1. **Secure.** Clean the inside and outside of the component (pipe or fitting) ends by wiping with a clean, dry, lint-free cloth or paper towel. Remove all foreign matter. Align the components with the machine, place them in the clamps and then close the clamps. *Do not force pipes into alignment against open fusion machine clamps.* (When working with coiled pipe, if possible "S" the pipes on each side of the machine to compensate for coil curvature and make it easier to join.) Component ends should protrude past the clamps enough so that facing will be complete. Bring the ends together and check high-low alignment. Adjust alignment as necessary by tightening the high side down.
2. **Face.** Place the facing tool between the component ends, and face them to establish smooth, clean, parallel mating surfaces. Complete facing produces continuous circumferential shavings from both ends. Face until there is a minimal distance between the fixed and moveable clamps. Some machines have facing stops. If stops are present, face down to the stops. Remove the facing tool, and clear all shavings and pipe chips from the component ends. *Do not touch the component ends with your hands after facing.*
3. **Align.** Bring the component ends together, check alignment and check for slippage against fusion pressure. Look for complete contact all around both ends with no detectable gaps, and outside



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diameters in high-low alignment. If necessary, adjust the high side by tightening the high side clamp. Do not loosen the low side clamp because components may slip during fusion. Re-face if high-low alignment is adjusted.

4. **Melt.** Verify that the heating tool is maintaining the correct temperature. Place the heating tool between the component ends, and move the ends against the heating tool. The initial contact should be under moderate pressure to ensure full contact. Hold contact pressure *very briefly* then release pressure without breaking contact. Pressure must be reduced to contact pressure at the first indication of melt around the pipe ends. Hold the ends against the heating tool **without force**. Beads of melted polyethylene will form against the heating tool at the component ends. When the proper melt bead size is formed, quickly separate the ends, and remove the heating tool.
 - During heating, the melt bead will expand out flush to the heating tool surface, or may curl slightly away from the surface. If the melt bead curls significantly away from the heating tool surface, unacceptable pressure during heating may be indicated.

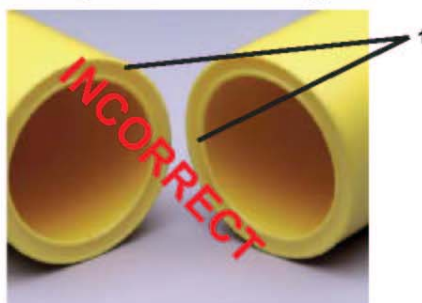
Table 1 Approximate Melt Bead Size

Pipe Size	Approximate Melt Bead Size
1-1/4" and smaller (40 mm and smaller)	1/32" – 1/16" (1 – 2 mm)
Above 1-1/4" through 3" (above 40 mm through 90 mm)	About 1/16" (2 mm)
Above 3" through 8" (above 90 mm through 225 mm)	1/8" – 3/16" (3 – 5 mm)
Above 8" through 12" (above 225 mm through 315 mm)	3/16" – 1/4" (5 – 6 mm)
Above 12" through 24" (above 315 mm through 630 mm)	1/4" – 7/16" (6 – 11 mm)
Above 24" through 36" (above 630 mm through 915 mm)	About 7/16"
Above 36" through 54" (above 915 mm through 1300 mm)	About 9/16"

5. **Join.** Immediately after heating tool removal, **QUICKLY** inspect the melted ends, which should be flat, smooth, and completely melted. If the melt surfaces are acceptable, immediately and in a continuous motion, bring the ends together and apply the correct joining force. *Do not slam. Apply enough joining force to roll both melt beads over to the pipe surface.*

A concave melt surface is unacceptable; it indicates pressure during heating. (See Figure 2). Do not continue. Allow the component ends to cool and start over at Step 1.

Figure 2 Unacceptable Concave Melt Appearance



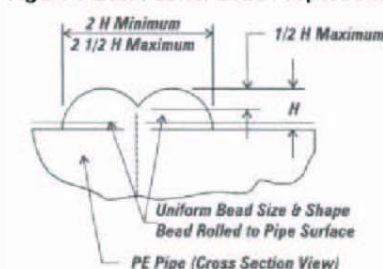
1. Unacceptable concave melt appearance.



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- The correct joining force will form a double bead that is rolled over to the surface on both ends.
6. **Hold.** Hold joining force against the ends until the joint is cool. The joint is cool enough for *GENTLE* handling when the double bead is cool to the touch. Cool for about 30-90 seconds per inch of pipe diameter. *Do not try to shorten cooling time by applying water, wet cloths or the like.*
- Avoid pulling, installation, pressure testing and rough handling for at least an additional 30 minutes.
 - Heavier wall thickness pipes require longer cooling times.
7. **Inspect.** On both sides, the double bead should be rolled over to the surface, and be uniformly rounded and consistent in size all around the joint. As illustrated in Figure 3, the double bead width should be 2 to 2-1/2 times its height above the surface, and the v-groove depth between the beads should not be more than half the bead height.

Figure 3 Butt Fusion Bead Proportions



- When butt fusing to molded fittings, the fitting side bead may have an irregular appearance. This is acceptable provided the pipe side bead is correct.
- It is not necessary for the internal bead to roll over to the inside surface of the pipe.

Table 2 Butt Fusion Bead Troubleshooting Guide

Observed Condition	Possible Cause
Excessive double bead width	Overheating; Excessive joining force
Double bead v-groove too deep	Excessive joining force; Insufficient heating; Pressure during heating
Flat top on bead	Excessive joining force; Overheating
Non-uniform bead size around pipe	Misalignment; Defective heating tool; Worn equipment; Incomplete facing
One bead larger than the other	Misalignment; Component slipped in clamp; worn equipment; Defective heating tool; Incomplete facing
Beads too small	Insufficient heating; Insufficient joining force
Bead not rolled over to surface	Shallow v-groove - Insufficient heating & insufficient joining force; Deep v-groove - Insufficient heating & excessive joining force
Beads too large	Excessive heating time
Squareish outer bead edge	Pressure during heating
Rough, sandpaper-like, bubbly, or pockmarked melt bead surface	Hydrocarbon contamination

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Butt Fusion Qualifying Procedure

1. Prepare a sample joint. Pipes on either side of the joint should be at least 6" (150 mm) or 15 times the wall thickness in length. Observe the joining process to determine that the correct procedure is being followed.
2. Visually inspect the sample joint and compare it to a sample or picture of an acceptable joint.
3. Allow the sample joint to cool completely – for no less than one hour.
4. Cut the sample joint lengthwise along the pipe into at least three straps that are at least 1" (25 mm) or 1.5 wall thicknesses wide. See Figure 1.
5. Visually inspect the cut surface at the joint and compare to a sample or picture of an acceptable joint. There should be no gaps, voids, misalignment, or unbonded areas.
6. Bend the straps until the ends of the strap touch.
7. If flaws are observed in the joint, compare appearance with pictures of unacceptable joints. Prepare a new sample joint using correct joining procedure, and repeat the qualifying procedure.

Acceptable Appearance



2. Proper alignment - no gaps or voids
3. Proper melt, pressure and alignment
4. Proper double roll-back bead

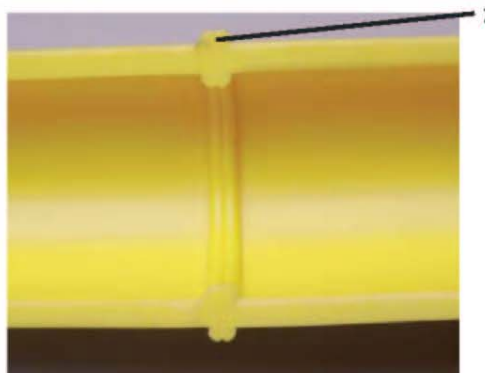


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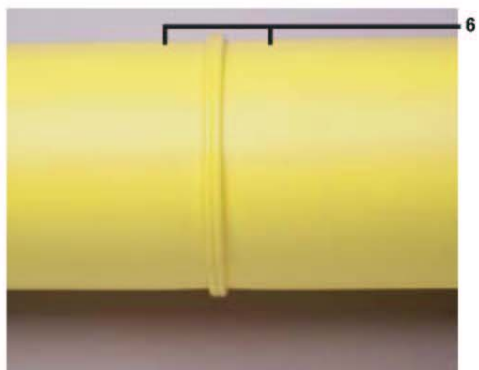
ACCEPTABLE FUSIONS



5. Proper double roll-back bead
6. Proper alignment



7. Proper double roll-back bead



6. Proper alignment



8. No gaps or voids when bent



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UNACCEPTABLE FUSIONS



9. Insufficient heat time; melt bead too small



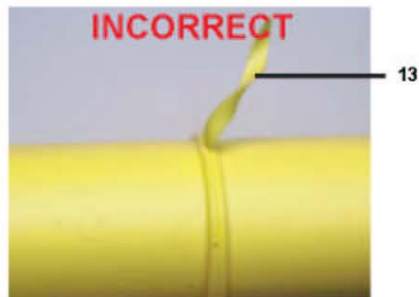
10. Excessive heat time or pressure applied during heating; melt bead too large



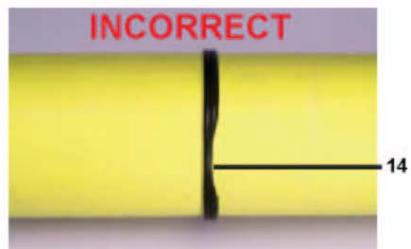
11. Pipe angled into fusion unit



12. Improper "High-Low" alignment



13. Incomplete face off or failure to remove faced off ribbons



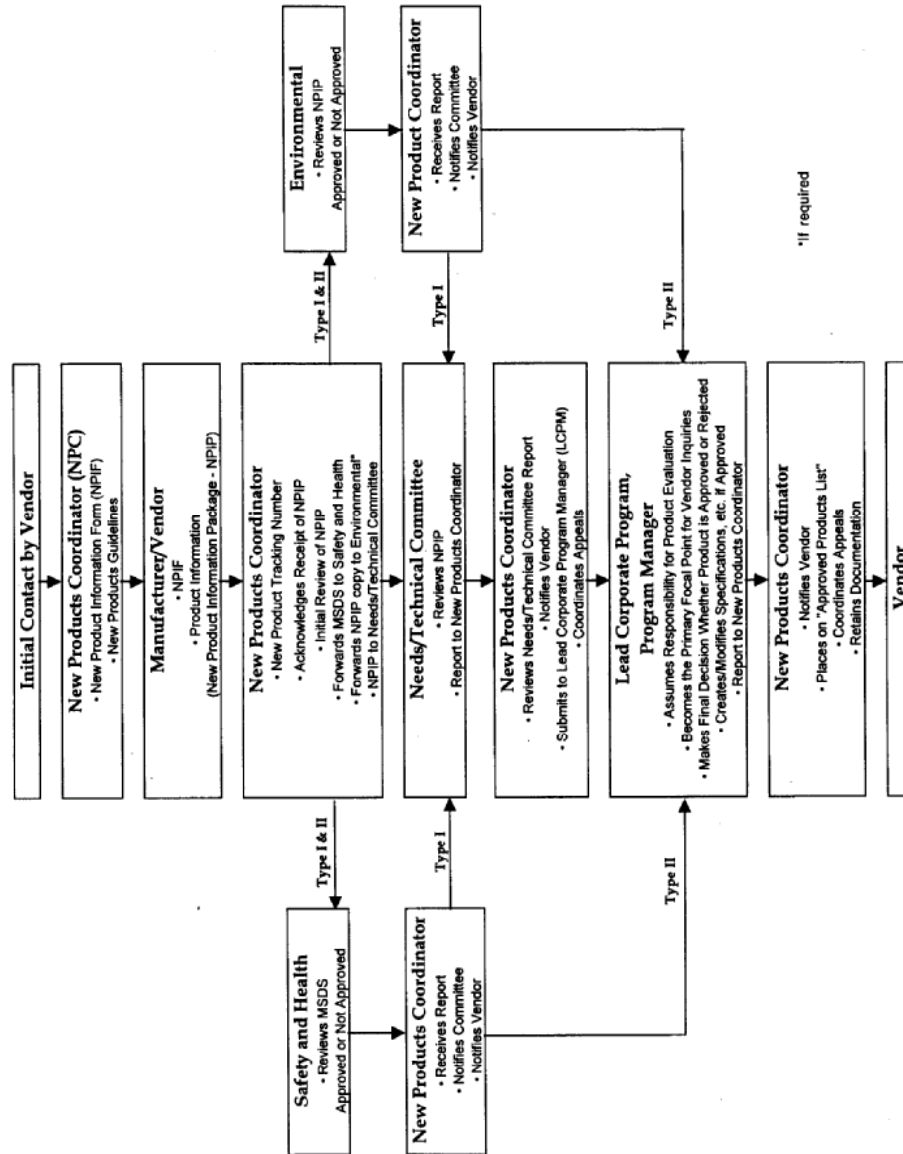
14. Incomplete face off

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Appendix B

New Products Flow Chart











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Figure 1

Appendix C – Caltrans Condition Tables Example

The table below is part of a larger set developed for inspectors participating in the Caltrans Pilot Culvert Inspection program.

The rating system developed by Caltrans is compatible with the Caltrans Culvert Inventory Database and not related to the FHWA rating system in the Culvert Inspection Manual. See <http://www.dot.ca.gov/hq/oppd/culvert/> for complete set.

RIGID CULVERT BARREL (Concrete)	
Waterway Adequacy 0-No deficiencies found. 1-GOOD: Minor debris and sediment, less than 25% blockage. 2-FAIR: Significant debris and sediment, between 25% and 50% blockage. 3-POOR: Between 50% and 75% blockage flooding of roadway and/or adjacent properties. 4-CRITICAL: Over 75% blockage.	   
Alignment 0-No Deficiencies Found 1-GOOD: Minor settlement and isolated misalignments. 2-FAIR: Significant settlement and misalignment throughout. 3-POOR: Poor alignment and major settlement causing ponding of water. Dislocated joints allowing backfill to infiltrate culvert barrel. 4-CRITICAL: Integrity of culvert is compromised due to misalignment.	   

Appendix D - Typical Resistivity Values and Corrosiveness of Soils

See Index 5.2.5

Table 5-1 Typical Resistivity Values (6)

Soil		Water	
Classification	Ohm-cm	Source	Ohm-cm
Clay	750— 2,000	Seawater	25
Loam	3,000—10,000	Brackish	2,000
Gravel	10,000—30,000	Drinking water	4,000+
Sand	30,000—50,000	Surface water	5,000+
Rock	50,000—infinity*	Distilled water	infinity*

*theoretical

Table 5-2 Relationship of Soil Corrosion to Electrical Resistivity (7)

Soil Type	Degree of Corrosiveness	Electrical Resistivity ohm-cm
1	Very low	10,000—6,000
2	Low	6,000—4,500
3	Moderate	4,500—2,000
4	Severe	2,000—0

Table 5-3 Corrosiveness of Soils (7)

Soil Type	Description of Soil	Aeration	Drainage	Color	Water Table
I Lightly Corrosive	1. Sands or sandy loams 2. Light textured silt loams 3. Porous loams or clay loams thoroughly oxidized to great depths	Good	Good	Uniform color	Very low
II Moderately Corrosive	1. Sandy loams 2. Silt loams 3. Clay loams	Fair	Fair	Slight mottling	Low
III Badly Corrosive	1. Clay loams 2. Clays	Poor	Poor	Heavy texture Moderate mottling	2 feet to 3 feet below surface
IV Unusually Corrosive	1. Muck 2. Peat 3. Tidal marsh 4. Clays and organic soils	Very poor	Very Poor	Bluish-gray mottling	At surface; or extreme impermeability

Appendix E – Crack Repair in Concrete Pipe Using a Maximum Strength, Non-Shrink, Portland Cement or Mortar (Refer to Index 5.1.1.2)

Dimensions of "V" Grind shall be 7 mm wide minimum and approximately 13 mm deep. 26 mm deep Grinds may damage reinforcement. The Grind shall be cleaned of any grinding dust and surface thoroughly moistened before filling with non-shrink Portland cement or Mortar (e.g. Jet PlugTM by Jet Set California Inc, see Appendix F) to ensure a good bond.

The mortar mix should be mixed to a low-slump consistency with only enough water added to gain a consistency of heavy glazing putty. Allow repair to become firm to touch 6 to 10 minutes after installation. Then shave to grade with a trowel edge. Do not overwork

If the new patch is not under water, a curing agent shall be used to cover the new patch plus 26 mm on either side of the new patch immediately after patch is firm. It should be noted that when longitudinal cracks are found at the crown of the pipe, usually the invert of the pipe is also cracked.

Appendix F - Sources of Information and Industry Contacts

In addition, to the following web sites, see FHWA Culvert Repair Practices Manual Volume 2, Appendix D, for Sources of information and assistance. A comprehensive index of trenchless contractors and services is provided in the Directory published annually by the Trenchless Technology magazine. See <http://www.trenchlessonline.com/> for buyer's guide link. Caltrans does not endorse any of the firms referenced below or listed in the Trenchless Technology magazine annual Directory and there may be many other firms not listed equally capable of performing specific services.

Internal joint seals:

CREAMER In-Weg® internal joint seals

<http://www.jfcson.com/Services/Internal%20Pipe%20Sealing%20-%20old/Untitled/untitled.html>

AMEX-10® /WEKO-SEAL® by Miller Pipeline Corp.

<http://www.mpc-tech.com/prod1.html>

Victaulic Depend-O-Lok, Inc.

http://www.victaulic.com/servlet/RetrievePage?site=victaulic&page=contact_dol

Internal Repair Sleeves

Link-Pipe

905-886-0335 ext 302

<http://www.linkpipe.com>

Chemical Grouting

Avanti International

822 Bay Star Blvd.

Webster, TX 77598

(281) 486-5600

(800) 877-2570 United States & Canada

www.AvantiGrout.com

Concrete Pipe Crack Repair

Jet Set California, Inc.

2144 Edison Avenue, San Leandro, CA 94577

(510) 632-7800

Cement-Mortar Lining

Spiniello's SpinCo.

<http://www.spiniello.com/technology.html>

Spirally Wound PVC companies:

Danby Pipe Renovation

<http://www.danbyrehab.com/man-entry.pdf>

Rib Loc Group Limited

<http://www.ribloc.com.au/piperehab/default.asp>

Plastic Pipe Manufacturers:

ADS Pipe

http://www.sunnycrest.com/ads_pipe.htm

Hancor

<http://www.hancor.com/product/pipe.html>

KWH Pipe

<http://www.kwhpipe.ca/>

J-M Manufacturing

<http://www.jmpipe.com/products.html>

Metal Pipe Manufacturers:

Contech

<http://www.contech-cpi.com/html/indexb.htm>

Pacific Corrugated Pipe Company

<http://www.pac-corr-pipe.com/>

General Pipe Rehabilitation:

Gelco Services

<http://www.gelco-services.com/>

1-888-223-8017

1705 Salem Industrial Dr NE

Salem, OR 97303

Phone: 503-364-1199

1244 Wilson Way

Woodland CA 95695

Phone: 530-406-1199

California Contractors Involved in Underground Pipe Construction and Repair

Abbett Electric Corporation
Gregg Abbett
1850 Bryant Street
San Francisco, C A 94110
Tel 415-864-7500
Fax 415-864-3140

Advanced Boring Specialists of CA
Jon Litsey
628 B Airport Rd.
Rio Vista, CA 94571
Tel 707-374-4304
Fax 707-374-4314
advancedboring@thegrid.net
www.advancedboring.com

Advanced Boring Specialist of CA
1185 Second St., Suite G-1
Brentwood, CA 94513
925-634-1983
925-634-0947

Aguinaga Boring CO
Robert Aguinaga
PO Box 776
La Habra, CA 90631
Tel 562-697-7172
Fax 562-697-6868

Anata Directional Drilling
15716 Auberry Rd
Clovis, CA 93611-9640
Tel 209-323-5713
Tel 1-888-374-5548
Fax 209-323-1994
anatadrilling@contractor.net
<http://www.anatadrilling.com>

ARB, Inc.
Greg Dahl
PO Box 5166
Lakeforest, CA 92630
Tel 949-598-9242
Fax 949-454-7190
www.arbinc.com

Arrow Trenchless
Harry Barnes
7307 Roseville Road #6
Sacramento, CA 95842
Tel 916-349-0220
Fax 916-349-0550
trapper@pacbell.com

B & H Communications Inc.
Bob Baron
PO Box 92
Santa Margarita, CA 93453
Tel 805-466-1562
Fax 805-466-3954
bhcom@thegrid.net

California Boring
Kevin Reardon
2180 N. Batavia
Orange, CA 92865
Tel 714-283-9133
Fax 704-998-1979

Can-Am Construction Co.
Brad Adams
250 Fisher Avenue
Costa Mesa, CA 92626
Tel 714-966-8500
Fax 714-966-9300

Cherrington Corp.
7398 San Joaquin St.
Sacramento, CA 95802
Tel 916-759-3040
Fax 916-457-5902

Clayborn Contracting Group Inc.
Dave Gove
10101 Streeter Rd. #B
Auburn, CA 95602-8511
Tel 530-268-9512
Fax 530-268-9524
clayborn@gv.net

Copenhagen Utilities
Paul Wilcox
8989 Elder Creek Rd.
Sacramento, CA 95829-1032
Tel 916-685-2211
Fax 916-685-7321

Crutchfield Construction Co.
Harold Crutchfield
PO Box 5545
Stockton, CA 95205
Tel 209-463-5352
Fax 209-463-9107
dcrutchfield@emailmsn.com

Deats Construction
2975 N. Wilson Way
Stockton, CA 95205-2424
209-227-9632

Golden State Utility Co.
Ken Armstrong
PO Box 2968
Turlock, CA 95381-2968
Tel 209-634-4981
Fax 209-634-8319
usswayne@aol.com

J Bindner Directional Boring
Jerry Bindner
5532 W Pershing Ave
Visalla, CA 93291-7916
Tel 209-635-4806
Fax 209-633-2255

Kanaflex Corp
David Teper
22 Tavella Pl
Fort Hill Ranch, CA 92610
949-581-2089

Kvilhaug Well Drilling & Pump Co., Inc.
Dan Kvilhaug
1109 Landini Lane
Concord, CA 94520-3703
Tel 925-685-6613
Fax 925-685-6678

Manuel Bros, Inc.
Richard Reed
908 Taylorville Rd. Suite 104
Grass Valley, CA 95979
Tel 530-272-4213
Fax 530-272-4213
rcreed@attmail.com

Melmat Construction
Robert Lambing
PO Box 7052
Corona, CA 91718
909-734-7465

P & G Communications Inc.
Ryan Azevedo
PO Box 2545
Visalia, CA 93279
Tel 559-651-2200
Fax 559-651-1670

Renaissance Construction Inc.
John Patrick/James Patrick
3131 Industrial Ct.
Yuba City, CA 95993
Tel 530-673-0070
Fax 530-673-1137
rencorp@inreach.com

Riley Communications
Tom Riley
31630 Railroad Canyon Road #16
Canyon Lake, CA 92587
Tel 909-244-3350
Fax 909-244-4887
riley@ifci.net
<http://www.ifci.net>

Stephan Enterprises
Stephan Bagboudarian
17426 Tuscan Drive
Granada Hills, CA 91344
TEL 818-360-2411

The HDD Company, Inc.
PO Box 621028
Orangevale, CA 95662-1028
TEL 916-987-8599
FAX 916-987-9248
hddcoinc@aol.com
thehddco.htm

Underground Boring Systems
Mark Randle
1378 Birch Avenue
Clovis, CA 93613
Tel 209-322-0882
Fax 209-299-8532

Underground Construction Co Inc.
Harry Robinson
5145 Industrial Way
Bemicia, CA 94510
Tel 707-746-8800
Fax 707-746-1314

Utility Boring Inc.
Bill Malcolm
14364 Santa Ana Ave
Fontana, CA 92337
Tel 909-356-8888
Fax 909-356-1428
utilbor@aol.com

Utility Development Co.
Tracie Schmitz
PO Box 5746
Napa, CA 94581
Tel 707-252-8954
Fax 707-255-4078

UTILX
Doug Pressnell
Half Moon Bay, CA
Tel 650-726-7754
www.utilx.com

Walmsley Directional Boring
Stephan Walmsley
17890 Iona Ave
Lemoore, CA 93245
Tel 209-924-7122
Fax 209-924-4751

Walter C Smith Co., Inc.
Mike DeBenedetto
PO Box 1047
Clovis, CA 93613
Tel 209-299-9727
Fax 209-299-4723

Western Utilities, Inc.
Ken Rose
PO Box 507
Cedarville, CA 96104
Tel 916-279-6271
Fax 916-279-6381
lrose@hdo.net